



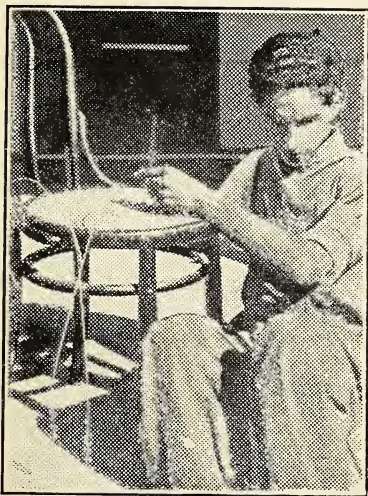
AMERICAN FOUNDATION
FOR THE BLIND INC.



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HANDICAPPED

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BEING THREE SHORT ESSAYS ON

(1) THE DEAF ; (2) THE BLIND ;

(3) THE DOUBLY-HANDICAPPED.

BY

REV. A. W. BLAXALL, B.A.

Superintendent, the Athlone School for the Blind, Faure, C.P.
First Chairman of the S.A. National Council for the Deaf.



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AMERICAN FOUNDATION
FOR THE BLIND INC.

September, 5th, 1931.

Dear Mr. Blaxall,

. Who can doubt that the people of South Africa will see to it that every handicapped fellow-creature is given a chance in life if they are shown the way? They are a strong, adventurous nation. Back of them is a past of difficulties splendidly overcome. I am familiar with the writings of Olive Schreiner, and they make me see and feel the spirit that developed a new country. I know it is a land with resources sufficient unto the building of a great future. Before it are ethical adventures as glorious and wonderful as any the pioneers wrought—the rehabilitation of human beings with broken faculties and hindered lives.

Few persons with all their senses can conceive of the utter loneliness and helplessness of the deaf and the blind who are not educated. They must be made to understand to a degree how cruelly fettered such individuals are in the activities of living. They must look into the problems of blindness and deafness, and ask themselves how they would feel if they were unable to acquire knowledge by the normal means of the eye and the ear.

My aspiration is for those who dwell in a dark and silent world to take a more active part in the great movements of the present day. Each success we may attain in this constructive effort will lead us directly to join our own forces to that of humanity.

Exceedingly with you in sympathy, and in prayer for the further development of your good work.

I am,

Cordially yours,

HELEN KELLER

HANDICAPPED

BEING THREE SHORT ESSAYS ON

- (1) THE DEAF; (2) THE BLIND;
(3) THE DOUBLY-HANDICAPPED.

*Which embody the results of studies in the U.S.A.
during a visit paid under the auspices of
the South African Visitors' Grants
Committee of the Carnegie
Corporation of New
York.*

BY

REV. A. W. BLAXALL, B.A.

*Superintendent, the Athlone School for the Blind, Faure, C.P.
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PREFATORY NOTE.

As part of its scheme for the diffusion of knowledge and understanding the Carnegie Corporation of New York has made arrangements whereby selected persons from South Africa have been enabled to visit Canada and the United States to study the methods by which certain social, educational and economic problems are being approached in those countries. Certain of the reports of the Carnegie Visitors are being published in the expectation that they will be of interest and of help to South Africa. Gratefully the Committee records its appreciation of the financial assistance it has received from the Syndic of the Witwatersrand Council of Education towards the cost of publication of this report.

LANGHAM MURRAY,
Secretary,
Carnegie Corporation Visitors' Grants Committee.



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INTRODUCTION.

It has not been an easy task preparing a report on work for the deaf and work for the blind, as the field is so large. In the first place, the essays take the form of following through the life of a deaf, a blind and a doubly handicapped person from the "cradle to the grave." I recognise that they will not contain much that is new to those who have been associated with the deaf or the blind for many years, but I think they will serve to present a more or less complete picture of what is being attempted in these days to improve the conditions of life for deaf people and for blind people. It very often happens that people with no previous experience are asked to serve on a school committee or welfare organisation and they become very interested in that which they undertake to do. When questions arise involving policy, and there are alternatives to be considered, it is very difficult for such people to give their vote, inasmuch as they do not really know the whole problem connected with the work, a part of which they are trying to help, and yet it is generally true that every department of educational or welfare work for the deaf or for the blind depends for its efficiency on the way in which it forms a part of a complete scheme, e.g., a policy affecting an educational matter will be valueless if it is not useful for after life. Likewise it will be foolish to do anything in the way of social welfare work if it is contradictory in nature to what has been taught in the school. My humble hope is that by reading these essays people will be enabled to see something of the vision which animates specialists who are trying to serve the cause of the deaf or of the blind. These specialists themselves will not learn very much, although I venture to hope that even they may find material for thought, especially in connection with the work for the deaf. Even specialists may become so absorbed in their own particular department that they lose sight of the whole picture.

It is natural that there are some subjects that require particular attention, and these I have tried to deal with in appendices. Readers who desire only to gain a general knowledge of work for the deaf or for the blind will not need to trouble about the appendices, for which reason they have not been included in the actual text of the essays, but at the end. I am conscious of the fact that many of these appendices will seem incomplete, especially in the matter of statistical details, but it is impossible to study everything in

the brief space of three months, and there are already many books published giving statistical information for those who desire to study it. All that I can dare to hope is that the appendices will indicate the various policies and ideals which actuate people working for the deaf and the blind in different parts of the world.

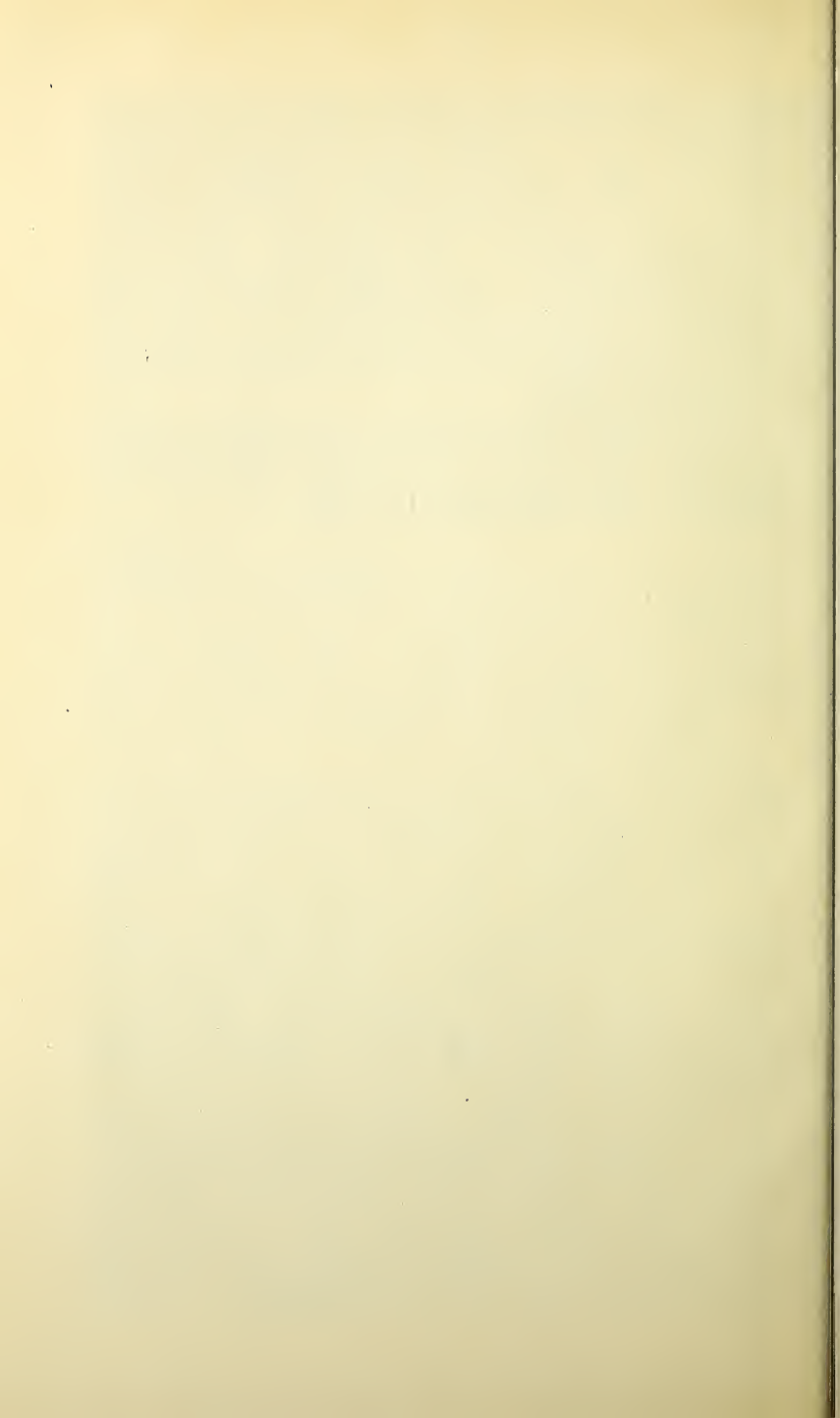
The situation in South Africa is so different from that which obtains in any other country that it is extremely difficult to recommend any particular course of action just because it happens to have proved successful in Germany or Canada or the United States of America. In some ways we are in a fortunate position in South Africa. We may profit from the mistakes made in other places by former generations. On the other hand, we have a certain amount of leeway to make up inasmuch as it has not been possible in the past to undertake certain forms of service for the deaf or for the blind. The great differences of life amongst the various peoples who dwell together in the Union of South Africa also complicate social services. We can only keep our eye on the ideal and strive towards it. The fact of the existence in South Africa of such an enormous proportion of the population living on a sub-economic basis complicates work such as that which we are considering, but we are confident that a sympathetic Government, which puts before everything else the creation of a happy, contented people, will not shirk the responsibility of putting efficiency in their social services as a foremost item in their programme.

In conclusion may I say how grateful I feel towards all those who made it possible for me to make this study in 1931. Prior to that date it has been my privilege to live in close association with deaf people, blind people and doubly handicapped people in Great Britain and in South Africa, but the visit to America, made possible by the Carnegie Corporation Visitors' Grants Committee, has revealed to me how boundless are the resources of human ingenuity in overcoming difficulties in life. I should like to thank the authorities of that Trust for the very generous way in which they assisted me at every stage of my investigations. I would also like to thank the American Foundation for the Blind—the body which organised the World Conference held in New York in 1931, which I was privileged to attend as the representative from South Africa. Words cannot describe the infinite trouble which was taken to make us comfortable during that conference, and to show us every branch of activity connected with work for the blind. The Phelps Stokes Fund was also most kind in making it possible for me to extend my investigations into some of the Southern States of America, where there are so many situations analogous to those obtaining in South Africa. It is impossible to mention names of the many at the

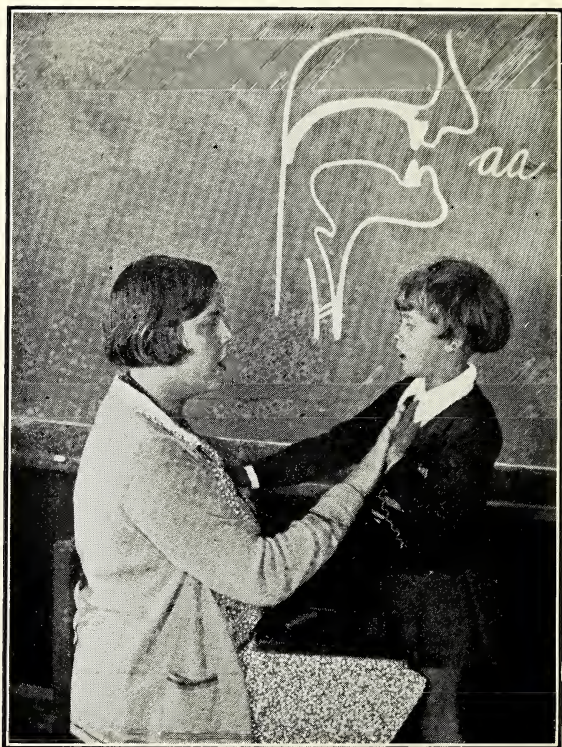
schools and institutions both for the deaf and for the blind who spared no pains in making it possible for me to see everything which I desired to study. The same is true in Germany and Holland, Scotland and England. One of the greatest privileges of my tour was in the fact that I met people from many countries who have devoted their lives to the service of the handicapped. Some of them were themselves handicapped people, although in many cases courage and perseverance have almost entirely removed the handicap and made of them people who contribute to life. It is to be hoped that before many years have passed some blind people and some deaf people in South Africa will rise up to care for their own fellow handicapped people.

The Witwatersrand Council of Education voted a generous grant towards the cost of printing this report; to them I desire to express my gratitude as well as to the personal friends who assisted me in reading the proofs and compiling an index.

ARTHUR W. BLAXALL.







A teacher in the Worcester School for the Deaf teaching voice production. Note diagram on board to show the child the position of the organs of speech.

ESSAY I.

THE LIFE OF A DEAF PERSON.

SECTION I.—CAN BABY HEAR ?

“ He is in nowise different from other children. His limbs are as straight and sturdy, his eyes as beautiful, his little ways as natural and sweet. He kicked and squirmed through his babyhood like other babies. He walked when he was nine months old. He laughs and crows.” And yet he was totally deaf. The mother who wrote these words took six months to admit the fact, and then did so with understandable anguish : “ Oh, God in heaven, why ? *why* ? WHY ? ”

Deafness is painfully difficult to recognize, and when discovered it requires the heart of a parent to realize the full tragedy of the disability.

The reason why deafness is not immediately perceived is obvious—the physical condition does not advertise itself as is the case with so many of life's handicaps. The ear, or rather the organs by which hearing is conducted, is not visible except with very delicate instruments, and so it is impossible to see at a glance if they are functioning correctly or not. What generally happens is this: when the baby is a few months old, mother begins to feel that there is something wrong. She cannot just say what this is, but has an instinctive feeling that this baby is not like the other ones were. It certainly follows her round the room with its eyes, and smiles when content, and cries when hungry, and yet there is something ! So she begins to watch it rather carefully. Then she comes to the conclusion that it does not respond to her voice when she speaks. Horror-stricken at the idea, she says : “ Daddy, I don't believe baby hears ! ” But even then it is difficult to establish whether she has really discovered what is wrong. It may be that baby hears a little, but does not hear finer sounds.

Whenever parents have any doubt about the hearing of a tiny child, they should at once consult a doctor, or if possible a specialist. The temptation usually arises to wait a few months and see if the apparent condition improves, but this is a fatal thing to do for it may be that the early deafness is due to some cause which can be removed, or at any rate, mitigated. An opportunity will present itself later in this essay to consider work for the prevention of deafness, here we are dealing with a child who is deaf.

It is important to remember that there are two main causes why) a child may be deaf, namely :—

(1 A child may be born deaf, a condition generally known as congenital deafness. About 40 per cent. of deaf people are so born, but it is difficult to say how many of these are due to consanguinity (the marriage of close blood relatives). This is a field of research work which is still in its infancy. One thing is known, that is that children who are born deaf are very often perfectly normal in every other respect. It is hard to explain, but nevertheless true, that people frequently regard deafness as something to be ashamed of, for which reason they are unwilling to admit the fact. Social workers, doctors, ministers and others should do all in their power to bring the parents of a deaf child to understand that it is no disgrace to have a deaf child, but that it is terribly unkind to neglect doing all in their power to develop the faculties which, as already stated, will probably be quite unimpaired.

(2) Deafness may be acquired. That is, the child may have been born with perfect hearing but very early illness may have affected the ears. Scarlet fever, whooping cough, meningitis and many other illnesses often leave a child totally deaf.

Further, the ear is so delicate that an unheeded accident may have destroyed the delicate organism. A fall, a blow on the head, or uncontrolled crying by a child in pain have all caused deafness.

The first thing, then, is to consult an ear specialist. This is generally easy in cities where there are clinics where aurists place their services at the disposal of those who cannot afford the usual fees, but in country districts it is often very difficult, especially if distances are great and travelling expenses heavy. This is so important that parents of a deaf child, who cannot themselves afford to seek advice from a specialist, should not hesitate to seek assistance from some charitable organisation.

When the aurist has stated that a child is incurably deaf, immediate steps should be taken to get into touch with a school or some organisation experienced in the education of the deaf. Every sympathy will be felt with a father and mother who are faced with the upbringing of a little life so tragically shut in from the influence of their voices. Think what it means ! The little one will not hear all those tender words of love which are the greatest influence in the awakening of personality. Only a mother can fully comprehend this because to a mother belongs the wonderful privilege of giving baby its first lessons in life.

Let this then be at once said : The mother of a deaf child must make up her mind that the little one is going to be treated exactly the same as any other of her children. What does this mean ?

It means that the same little sentences must be said to the deaf baby as to the children who hear. "I love you," "Come to mother," "Where's papa," and so on, with this great difference: when speaking to the deaf child make sure he is looking, just turn his head slightly and wait until his eyes are directed to mother's face.

It is a good thing for the parents of a deaf child, especially the mother, to visit a school for the deaf as early as possible in order to learn a little of the right way to train the little one to watch the lips. Most schools have a small book of advice to the mother of a deaf child, this should be studied carefully. From it will be learned such things as: Care must be taken to use the same words, such as "Come to mother," every time and not sometimes "Come to mother" and another time "Come to me" or "Come here." Words which have a similar lip formation must be avoided, as, for example, "Mama" and "Papa" look the same, so either "Mama and Father" or "Mother and Papa" must be used.

There is one piece of advice which must be followed by parents and others who have the care of a deaf child, although at times it will be very difficult. It is—never try to teach a deaf child to speak. It is very difficult and if a child learns to mispronounce when very small it will be exceedingly difficult to correct him afterwards.

Parents who really desire to take trouble over the training of their deaf child will do well to keep a little note-book. In this diary notes can be made of how, and when, the little one showed signs of recognising certain words; when it began to pick out objects and associate them with their name when spoken.

Everything that is said must be said quite naturally, any temptation to exaggerate the mouth formation of a word must be avoided.

Pictures are a great help. They may be cut out of papers and catalogues and pasted on to cardboard. The picture can be pointed out as the name is said, then, after a time two or three pictures should be shown at the same time, the name of one spoken and the child left to pick out the right picture. Success should be rewarded with a smile, a hug or a kiss, failure indicated by a *very slight* shake of the head and the word "No."

All this means taking a great deal of trouble, but it will be rewarded when the child goes to school and the teacher says "My work has been made easier by the good foundation laid at home."

There is an excellent pamphlet called "The Diary of a Deaf Child's Mother" which can be obtained from "The Volta Bureau," 35th Street, N.W., Washington D.C., U.S.A.

Not every mother of a deaf child will be able to do all that is necessary whilst the child is small, for many mothers have large

families, and household duties which take a lot of time. For this reason it is desirable that every school for the deaf should have a "pre-school" department for children under the normal school age. Even parents who have leisure and inclination to devote a lot of time to their deaf child will be well advised to let it go to school at the age of five, for there is so much to be done to teach speech as well as lipreading.

That every deaf child should be taught speech is hardly disputed in these days. The old method of education by hand spelling and signs has many grievous disadvantages, notably the fact that it limits conversation to those able to use the manual language, whereas speech is common to mankind.

There is also the fact that speech organs are connected with a section of the brain which, if it is not used, apparently affects the whole development.

It is probably true that there are some deaf children who will never make a success of speech and lip-reading and reference will be made to them later, but every parent should begin with the assumption that their child will learn to speak and read the lips. With this conviction in mind two factors must be remembered:

(1) The organs of speech are very delicate, especially the throat muscles. A well-known otologist, Dr. L. Goldstein of St. Louis, Missouri, U.S.A., maintains that by six years of age these muscles have lost so much of their subtle flexibility that the work of training them to articulate is much harder than between the ages of three and six.

(2) Successful lip-reading depends on a quick, accurate eyesight—the training of this cannot begin too early.

It is natural that no parent cares to part with a child that is little more than a baby, but the handicap of deafness is so great that the problem of education must be bravely and honestly faced as soon as the mother begins to perceive that intelligent understanding is waking up in the closed mind.

SECTION II.—THE GREAT DECISION.

A mother who has been able to visit a school for the deaf will feel as if she has visited another world. Perhaps for the first time she will realize what an enormous task is before her if her child is so to overcome its handicap that it will be able to take a normal place in life with other people. But she will also have learned something else, that teachers of the deaf are devoted women and men to whom their charges are not merely school children to be educated so many hours per week, but are the absorbing interest of their lives. Few professions exact so much, and yet give so much, as that of teaching deaf children, especially the very small ones who come to the teacher with almost the whole world waiting to be interpreted to them.

Mothers who have tried to help their deaf child, and have kept a faithful diary of all they have done, and the little one's reactions, will marvel when they see how much more the trained teacher is able to do by love and patience.

A gentleman in South Africa who taught deaf children for nine years, and then took up another difficult type of educational work, remarked in later life that the picture he could never banish from his mind was that of the face of a little deaf child looking up into his face when he was trying to teach it a sound formation. "The child's eyes," he said, "were just full of longing to understand what I wanted to convey." And this crystallizes the whole problem of the deaf infant. It is ever longing to enter into the world around—it sees mother, father, sister, brother and other people looking at it, indicating something to it, and yet! How wide and deep is the chasm between the soul of a deaf child and all the realities of life: not all the love of the wisest mother can make a bridge: but love, patience, skill, can all help, especially when combined with courage to do the right thing however great the pain to oneself—probably only a mother knows the anguish of facing up to the fact that other people can do more for the beloved child than she can do alone, however deep the longing to help may be.

There are two great decisions which must confront the parents of a deaf child which cannot be escaped, namely:—

- (1) At what age should a deaf child begin education?
- (2) What is the best available education?

With regard to the first question, it is impossible to begin thinking about it too soon. There are parents who postpone the question from year to year; they see their deaf child growing up and growing more and more attached to them and its home: when it is ten or

eleven years of age and begins to develop habits which are difficult to control they think of school, only to be told that very little can be done to teach the difficult art of lip-reading and speech. It is not necessary to dwell on the remorse which must come to such parents in later years when their child has become a man or woman, and upbraids them for keeping it back from school so long that the whole of life has been handicapped. There can be few sadder sights than that of a deaf man struggling silently, and watching other deaf people speaking and lip-reading, and then spelling on his fingers, with bitterness in his heart, "Why did I not have this opportunity when I was young?"

But it must not be imagined that it is an easy matter for parents to settle. There are some educators who say emphatically that every deaf child should begin school at three years of age, certainly not later than four, but it is difficult to generalize in this way.

I must admit that some of the nursery classes I saw in one or two American schools were very beautifully run, and very homely: but I cannot honestly say that children of fourteen or fifteen years in the same school, who had therefore had twelve years' schooling, appealed to me as better lip-readers, or clearer in speech, than children of the same age in other schools who had had only nine years' education.

For children from homes where they get very little help it is certainly greatly to be desired that they should come under the care of specialists by the age of four at the latest, but for children with understanding parents it is difficult to make out a strong case for making a break in the God-given home life before the age of five. This much is desirable, that parents should get into touch with the school to which they intend to send their child. Many schools have correspondence classes for parents in spite of the fact that it means more work for the school Principal.

In most countries educational authorities are not prepared to carry the cost of education for children under six, this is much to be regretted.

The second great decision which must be made concerns the best type of education. There are three possibilities, although financial considerations, and conditions of environment, may eliminate one or the other. They are:—

- (a) Education by a private teacher in the home.
- (b) A day school for the deaf.
- (c) A boarding school for the deaf.

The first needs no comment as it is a possibility open to very few owing to the expense. Even when it is possible it is by no

means certain that it is the best thing for the deaf child who will thereby be deprived of the opportunity of development by contact with others. The classes in schools for the deaf are now kept so small, and there is so much individual attention, that a little deaf child gets almost as much in a school as would be learned from a private teacher, with the additional advantage of having other children to provide that stimulus which is so important in the growth of character.

For the majority of parents, therefore, the choice must lie between a day school and a boarding school. Expert opinion is still very much divided as to which gives the greatest opportunity to a deaf child. The day school has the obvious advantage of keeping the child in the natural home circle to the fullest possible extent, but there are other factors to be considered, one of the most important being the fact that there is a great difference in ability, temperament and physical capacity including degrees of hearing between one deaf child and another. In a small school with only one or two teachers it is wellnigh impossible to divide, or classify, children, the intelligent must be kept back by the slow; the slow will not get the attention they need as teachers naturally devote a good deal of time to the children most likely to respond. In a large school of fifty or more children classification becomes easier in every way.

A day school of fifty or more children is only possible in a city where there is a large population, but where this does exist it is probably true to say that a day school has advantages over a boarding school, although the school needs to have over a hundred children if a wide variety of opportunity for technical instruction is to be offered, suitable to different types of children as they grow up.

These are the main considerations which must be turned over in the minds of those parents whose sole concern is the interests and welfare of their child. Whatever decision they may reach, be it to have a private teacher, or to send the child to a day school, or to a boarding school, the conclusion reached will have a life long influence. Passing from the personal care of mother into the life of school the deaf child is crossing the threshold which leads from its own enclosed life out into the great world with which it will now find innumerable points of contact. That the best results may be obtained it is vital that there should be complete sympathy and co-operation between teachers and parents, so it will be well to study now the ideals and methods used in the education of a deaf child.

SECTION III.—THE SCHOOL OBJECTIVE.

Very few people think of school days merely as the time when a child acquires certain facts, although the almost universal system of examinations still causes considerable stress to be laid on *learning* to the exclusion of *development*, which is the truer objective of all education. The development of innate ability, individuality, character, thereby enabling the *persona* to take its fullest place in life.

That this is the main purpose of all school life is true, but it is especially true of the education of the deaf. Whereas a hearing child develops very considerably by ordinary daily contacts, especially those established by conversation, and the power to hear, the deaf child is almost entirely shut up in its own life, a life of which almost nothing is known, for there are so few indications. Parents frequently note the growth of a normal child by the things which interest it, and what it says—mothers cherish in their hearts quaint and original sayings of their children, but the mother of a deaf child has nothing on which to build her hopes and longings beyond certain vague physical reactions, and deep, longing eyes when she speaks with endearing words to the silent little one.

Let us try to summarize what total deafness means. Physically : it results in one of the main channels of contact between the inner life of the child and the outside world being closed. It also means inability to acquire speech in the usual way, with the resultant disuse of vital sections of the brain. Mentally : practically all the early lessons of life which should be learned in the home are lost. A deaf child of three years old has a mental development very slightly in advance of the stage when conscious realisation of external relationship awakes—that is, there is a mental retardation of about two years. Spiritually : deafness isolates.

School life for the Deaf, then, assumes a great objective over and above the purpose of all education : nothing less than this, to break down barriers, to overcome handicaps and bring the deaf child as close as may be to normality of life, of expression and of understanding.

The greatness of the task can only be comprehended by those who have been in intimate touch with deaf children. It is the conviction of modern educationalists that it can be done, that deafness need no longer be regarded as synonymous with an abnormal psychology and an unusual mode of self expression.

This great task is attempted, and frequently achieved :

(1) By minimising the physical handicap by teaching lip-reading and articulation, thereby exercising the organs of speech with the result that the brain is stimulated from a very early age.

(2) A means of communication being established, also a way of self-expression, the ordinary processes of education and learning follow. It is difficult to say if the early retardation can be remedied during schooldays, or whether deaf children will always be about two years behind hearing children in intellectual attainment. This is a question which must be considered in detail later.

(3) Spiritual development—this is so important that it must be discussed in a separate section of this essay.

Every modern teacher of the deaf approaches his, or her, work with the conviction that deafness does not in itself constitute any more than a temporary handicap, a condition which can be mitigated and often entirely banished. There are to be met teachers of the deaf who believe that if all the essentials necessary for perfect conditions of teaching and education can be obtained, the majority of deaf children will take their place in life without any apparent differentiation owing to their deafness. How far this is possible must be considered after we have made some study of methods employed in the teaching and training of the deaf.

SECTION IV.—THE SCHOOL METHOD.

Parents and friends who have intimate knowledge of the tremendous task involved in trying to reach the hidden life of the little deaf child will appreciate how much patient labour will be needed to achieve all that has been outlined in the last section. It is natural that there is much variety of opinion as to the best methods to be employed.

The history of the education of the deaf begins at an early date with individual experiments, but it is only within the last hundred and fifty years that schools have existed, generally founded to encourage some teaching experiment. So different methods were followed, some schools still adhering to their original theories, although in general principle it is now accepted that teaching of speech and the use of language is fundamental if the deaf are to move freely in a world where competition is keen, and human nature not always kind.

The methods still employed to teach and train the deaf in different parts of the world may be grouped under four heads:—

- (1) The silent method.
- (2) The ORAL method.
- (3) The AURICULAR method.
- (4) The combined method.

The first is the oldest method used in schools for the deaf, although individual attempts to teach deaf children to speak have been made, notably in Germany, as long ago as a hundred or more years. By "silent" method is meant the use of hand signs which are so natural to deaf children, and the means of rapid communication known as finger spelling. It is probably true to say that it would be hard to find a school anywhere in the world to-day where this method is exclusively employed, but to the credit of those who taught it in the past it must be admitted that many thousands of deaf and dumb people have been enabled to take a real place in life although they have never learned to speak or lip-read. Most countries could furnish numerous examples of deaf-mutes, men and women, who have achieved great things, relying entirely on the silent language of the hands and the power to read and write which their silent education has given them.

Still it is right that parents should be told from the beginning to avoid signing to their deaf children, at any rate until they have learned enough by the oral method to converse freely with people who know nothing of signs or finger spelling. After all speech is common to man, whereas the knowledge of the silent language belongs to the few.

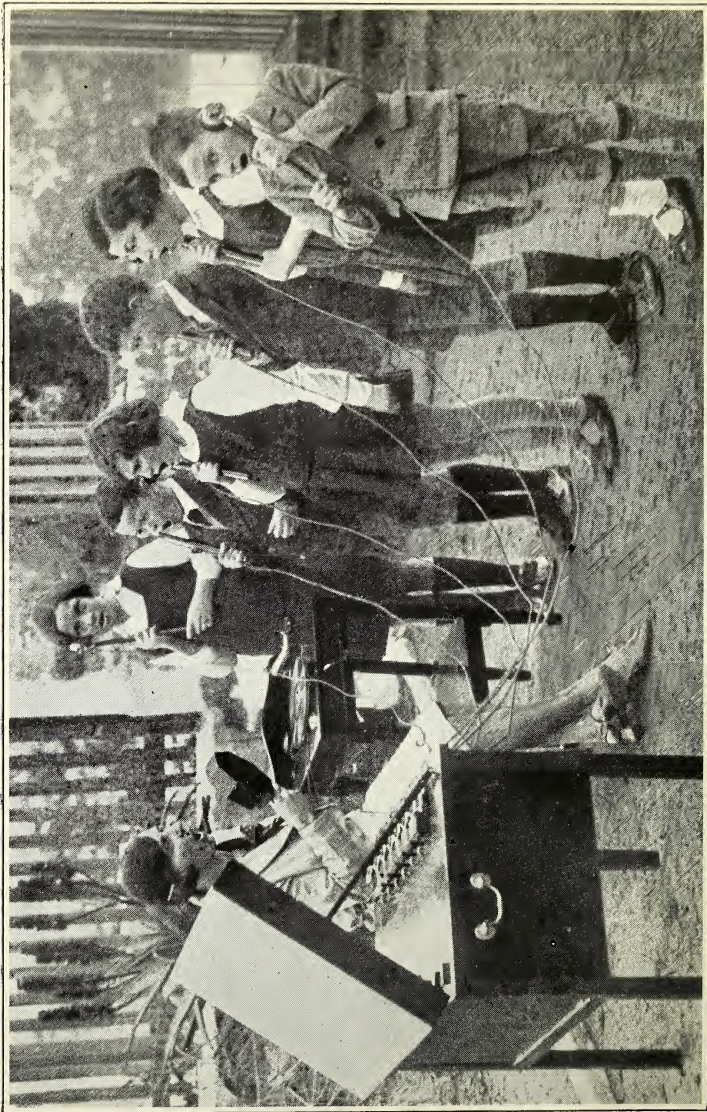
The Oral Method is the name given to the system of educating the deaf now all but universal. It consists of comprehending language by the formation of the lips; and by physical imitation producing intelligible sounds.

The way in which a child is introduced to this method of education is all-important. It begins by developing every existing sense for relating familiar objects to their names. In a nursery class-room every object should be labelled, as "This is a chair," "This is a window," and so on. In this way the eyes learn to associate certain words with their objects long before the significance of language can be grasped. In speaking to the tiny children teachers are always careful to use the same names and sentences so that the children actually recognize short phrases formed by the lips before each word is understood.

As the child grows and passes into the school standards there will be continual co-operation between the teachers. The grading of the children is very important and begins early so that those with keener, quicker intelligence are able to go forward, whilst the slower ones have every opportunity which they need.

To avoid being tedious and wearisome teachers are constantly planning language lessons in the form of games, which system is carried through all the different branches of study. Arithmetic is learned by practical propositions embracing familiar subjects:





THE DOMINICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, CAPE TOWN.

a geography lesson may begin, "George, we are now going to learn about your rain-coat." Even in the higher classes I have seen most successful lessons given entirely as a game. For example, a class-room was turned into a shoe shop. One boy acted as shop-keeper and the others came to have shoes fitted, and to buy. The sentences used included, "What do you want"; "Are they comfortable"; "Stand up and walk"; "Goodbye, come again." In another school I saw in the classroom a very large doll's house which was in daily use, whilst one of the largest schools in England has an entire market installed in the hall. There are booths with a model baker's shop, butchers, etc. Once a week the market is open. The boys attend to the shops whilst the girls purchase, being supplied with cardboard coins. Strict accounts are kept in the shops, and by the purchasers.

Other special methods are employed to help deaf children to gain all the knowledge they need, at the same time always increasing their language, for which purpose in every class-room there should be a dictionary accessible. No child should be allowed to use a word he or she does not understand.

The school Notice Board is very important, and should include a daily News Sheet, with a map for marking places referred to in the daily newspapers, and with ample room for the children to pin up items of news they have cut out from papers not accessible to all.

In spite of all these various methods employed to help deaf children along the thorny path to knowledge it is still contended by most teachers that in general intelligence deaf children are always a few years behind hearing children of a similar age. Moreover, many educators say that it invariably takes two years for a deaf child to cover ground a child with all its faculties covers in a year. On the other hand Dr. Max Goldstein, of St. Louis, Missouri, is not alone when he asserts that this theory will be exploded if only the ideal conditions of education can be obtained, especially the very early beginning including the use of all possible means for the development of every sense.

Personally I find it difficult to believe they can achieve this by pure oral methods for reasons to be stated later.

The Auricular method is the name given to education which leads to the comprehension of language by ear, and speech by hearing. It is a method increasingly employed in Europe and America in conjunction with the oral method. It is based on an assumption that the majority of children considered totally deaf have really some residual hearing, or can obtain a sense of sound by vibrations and bone conduction. The school in which the greatest use is

being made of auricular methods for instructing deaf children is the Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis, Missouri, of which the head is that delightful personality Dr. Max Goldstein, who is really an otologist rather than an educationalist. He has succeeded in persuading many parents to entrust their deaf children to him as young as three years old, for he contends that the years between three and six are basic in the teaching of the deaf. He works on the assumption that every child hears something, if only the islands of sound can be reached, and trained to listen. He admits that the main difficulty is that every mechanical appliance at present known is of very little use with tiny children when the use of the instrument cannot be explained to them. The perfect instrument for measuring hearing has yet to be invented.

In the very early stages of auricular training Dr. Goldstein employs many ways for increasing the sense of vibrations. He even blindfolds children and trains them to recognise certain words by placing their hands on the cheek, lips or throat of the speaker. He uses an instrument like a megaphone with parchment stretched across the open end. The child puts the tips of its fingers on the parchment whilst the teacher speaks into the instrument, and some children learn to recognise certain words and phrases.

In older classes the auricular method includes the use of rhythm bands (triangles, drums, hand-clapping, etc.), and standing in a group round a piano, placing the hands on the frame whilst rhythmic tunes are played. Dancing and other forms of physical exercise are of value, also breathing exercises which in some cases may grow into a form of singing.

To help in pitch, tone and so on, a number of mechanical appliances have been invented and are used in several schools. Whilst they may be of great assistance for children with definite residual hearing, it has to be admitted that there is danger of the sound of the natural voice being distorted and so the child learning incorrectly.

The auricular method would appear to have one great value, namely, that of recognising sounds, and variations in time, pitch and intensity, but it is open to question whether any child has the power of hearing developed. After all the main thing is that the brain should be developed to the fullest possible extent—in this the auricular method is unquestionably a help, provided care can be taken that not too much time is devoted to this to the exclusion of general educational development. Ardent exponents of pure oralism, and the auricular method, are at times apt to be obsessed with the idea that the teaching of speech is the only vital thing for the deaf, whereas speech is but one department of

life (admittedly very important)—without a wide understanding it may be almost useless. After all a person with normal hearing apprehends the sounds produced by people speaking a foreign tongue, but of what value is it if the language is not understood?

The Combined method is the name given to the system of education which does not minimise the importance of lip-reading and speech, but allows finger-spelling as a supplementary means for acquiring knowledge and for rapid accurate explanation. For many years much has been written, sometimes with considerable heat and feeling, for and against the combination of the two methods—oral and manual. Opponents urge that it is impossible to adhere solely to finger-spelling, if the use of the hands is allowed, signing is inevitable. That this is not the case has been proved in several American schools, notably Rochester School in the State of New York. At this school both speech and language are stressed continually, but finger-spelling is permitted from the very beginning, and is used in the class-room as an accurate, quick way of explaining a difficult point to a child. Those who favour the combined method maintain that finger-spelling is only language in another form, even as the written word is a form of language. “What is the difference,” they say, “between writing with a pen on paper, and writing with the finger in the air?”

One thing I am bound to admit after being present during a number of lessons given by purely oral means, on a variety of subjects, is that there are two great difficulties for the teacher.

(1) There is a temptation for a lesson in geography, for example, to be diverted from the main purpose of the lesson when difficulty arises over an unfamiliar word: the lesson then becomes a language lesson.

(2) Teachers are frequently forced to devote much time to one particular pupil who stumbles over a word.

The use of finger-spelling solves the difficulty in both cases—the lesson is given orally, but when a new word or phrase threatens to turn attention aside, it is explained with the fingers, the main lesson then continues. The same applies with the individual child. The slow child is enabled to keep pace, its power of comprehension being assisted. In either case care must be taken to note the difficulty in lip-reading or pronunciation, and the difficulty explained at the right time, namely, during a language lesson.

The question is frequently asked as to which is the best method. This is very difficult to answer for there is so much diversity amongst deaf children.

It is probably true that ideal conditions for oral teaching are very seldom obtainable. It is certainly a fact that the auricular

method is still in its infancy. This much at least must be said for the combined system: deaf people in adult life nearly always take to every form of self-expression, conversation and development of their various faculties, which includes language. Why then should it be considered unreasonable to use all methods during school days, conventional signing being excepted as it is without question destructive of good language.

I have said that ideal conditions are seldom obtainable. This is very largely owing to the fact that such education is very costly: costly in the need for highly trained teachers; small classes; a very long period of schooling (fifteen or eighteen years), and other factors which government educational authorities are seldom willing to finance, and private charity cannot. The field of deaf education offers wonderful opportunities for constant research and experimentation. Progress depends on co-operation between all concerned, the banishing of prejudices and predilections, and honest testing of methods in the light of results. In America numerous organisations are doing much in this direction, notably the Volta Bureau at Washington. In other countries also research work goes on—still there is much to be done, but the parents of a deaf child can confidently leave their little one in the school for the deaf, knowing that everything which is being done has this object in view—the removal of the barrier which deafness casts up between them and the child they love, and ultimately to enable him, or her, to take a normal place in the world.

SECTION V.—FACING LIFE.

A PROFESSION OR A TRADE.

That the schoolroom is the training ground for life work is a commonplace, and yet how often do parents wait until the last few months before considering the future of their children. To neglect decision in the case of a deaf child is very serious, for the placing of a deaf child in work of any kind is seldom easy, and certainly more difficult if the employer has to face the task of training from the beginning.

In these days it is usual for parents to consult with teachers with a view to finding out in what work the child is most likely to be successful. Like everyone else deaf children have their interests and particular gifts. Although it may be difficult for them to realise

If they wish, it will be a great help if they are able to train and mould their powers in some congenial occupations.

In American schools the children are encouraged to have particular interests. Clubs are formed for various hobbies, such as stamp collecting, literature, music and so on. The children plan out a year's programme under supervision, and time is set apart in the curriculum for the actual club work. In this way teachers are helped in forming an estimate of character and ability, which is of great service when planning the child's life work.

Both in America and Europe a good deal of attention has been given within recent years to a study of industrial conditions amongst the adult deaf. Questionnaires have been circulated by schools to their old pupils, and by welfare societies amongst those with whom they are in touch. A considerable amount of valuable information has been collected, from which the following facts appear:—

A large percentage of successful deaf workmen attribute their success to the fact that they received a sound trade basis at school.

Pupils from residential schools show a larger percentage of successes as tradesmen than pupils from day schools, which is almost certainly due to the fact that vocational instruction forms a larger part in the curriculum of residential schools than of day schools.

It is much easier to place a deaf lad or girl who has had some years of training than those who have not had this advantage. In large business concerns it is generally urged that the foreman has not time to give the specialised attention that a deaf learner needs. How far it is an advantage financially for a deaf youth to have had some training depends very largely on local conditions. In Great Britain it appears that national Health and Unemployment regulations tend to make it a disadvantage for them to begin as "learners" as employers do not then have the advantages of their services for two years without paying Insurance and other premiums in their behalf. The rule is that employers may keep a boy or girl of fourteen two years to teach them a trade without being liable under the Acts, so that deaf children leaving school later owing to having had vocational training lose part of its value when they seek work at sixteen and find employers prefer hearing children of fourteen.

That knowledge of speech is a real asset is maintained by the majority of workers which stresses the importance of continual speech training during years chiefly devoted to the vocational classes.

The most profitable trades both in Europe and America are:—
For boys, boot-making, tailoring, carpentry and cabinet-making,

baking and plumbing. In America printing is considered one of the best trades for the deaf, and includes linotype work. Farming also has been very successfully taught in a number of schools.

For girls: dress-making, laundering, millinery, cooking and general domestic science.

One of the most important factors in the technical instruction given in the schools is the fact that the children become acquainted with the names and uses of the tools, and such other general information which a foreman in a factory has neither the time nor the scientific ability to impart to a deaf apprentice.

The amount of time which should be given to technical instruction in school depends very largely on the local educational regulations. In England it is required that deaf children who have reached a certain standard in general knowledge should receive at least four hours per week vocational training. The obvious tendency is for the time to be increased as the children grow older. In America both hearing and handicapped children stay at school to an older age than is customary in Europe. This, combined with the type of general training given—as referred to above—may account for the fact that I personally gained an impression that the adult deaf of America are generally more developed and self-reliant than in England. I am interested to note that the late F. G. Barnes* of England himself admitted this fact after an extended visit to the United States of America.

Professional Life, and High School Training.

Until recent years it was generally considered that deaf people, by nature of their handicap, could not make a success in the professional walks of life. Even now there are many educators of the deaf and welfare workers who only grudgingly admit that there are deaf youths for whom the prospect of manual work is not only unattractive but also uneconomic to the community in general inasmuch as they are in every way fitted for professional work. Professions in which deaf people have proved their ability, sometimes to a marked degree, include the Church, Teaching, Dentistry, Architecture and Journalism. The scope they offer naturally varies.

The Church: Opportunities for a deaf man to enter the Ministry are almost entirely confined to those places where there are Missions

F. G. Barnes was a leading Educationalist who specialised, with marked success, in the education of the doubly handicapped. After retiring he toured the world studying work for the deaf, and was present at the meeting in Bloemfontein when the South African National Council for the Deaf was constituted. On returning to England he worked in connection with the National Institute for the Deaf until his death in 1932.

or the Deaf. In America almost all the Churches especially used by the Deaf are served by a totally deaf Minister. In England also there are a number of deaf men carrying out work of wide usefulness and great importance.

The Teaching Profession is almost closed to the deaf except where silent classes are still retained, or where the method at the school is the Combined method. In some American schools, e.g. Mount Airy just outside Philadelphia, I was interested to meet several deaf teachers who did not use the manual system at all. Admittedly they were very outstanding people, University graduates and very gifted oralists. Where such people are available they must be a great inspiration to the deaf children they teach.

Other professions are followed by deaf people in more isolated instances, and are nearly always examples of great perseverance and natural ability.

The question that arises is how far can the ideals of professional life be kept before deaf children during their school days, and what provision ought to be made to help those who have obvious vocations.

There is only one institution in the world specifically for deaf students where courses are given of a High School and University type. It is Gallaudet College, Washington, U.S.A. The main departments are the Normal College for Teachers, and the classes which prepare for the University entrance examinations. The existence of Gallaudet College is without doubt the reason why a larger percentage of deaf people in America are engaged in professional work than in any other country. The need for such a school is keenly felt in England to-day, and plans for its realisation are already under consideration. On the other hand there is a school of thought, and it appears to be growing, which affirms that such a special school for the deaf is neither necessary nor desirable, that it is better for the deaf to make the break with an isolated type of life as early as possible in their training. Those who think in this way say that the more intelligent deaf students who pass on to High School, or University work, are presumably able to converse freely and to lip-read with moderate ease almost anything which may be said. Therefore they maintain that the special class is no longer necessary, as the students can follow sufficiently the ordinary lecturer at School or University.

I have personally met a number of successful professional deaf men who have not passed through Gallaudet College but have gone straight from the school for the deaf into the University College of their choice. Although one must admit that this is possible in isolated cases—the logic of facts compels this admission—still it

is my personal conviction that deaf students who pass through in this way do not get the best out of life. In the lecture room much is said when the lecturer's head is turned away, or even with his back to the class—lip-reading becomes impossible. The result is that the deaf student has to borrow notes from another student, and every minute of spare time is occupied to the exclusion of sports and sharing in the general College life which is such an important part of student days. There are, of course, exceptions.

One of the outstanding features of life at Gallaudet College which strikes a visitor is the very normal type of College life which prevails. The students have their own societies, fraternities and sororities ; their own sports clubs, and every form of out-of-lecture-room activity. The lectures have been so easily understood by all that there has been time to devote to these other aspects of College life.

The main contention of this section is that parents may feel quite happy that every opportunity will be given to their deaf child to carry out the work of life in the way which is both congenial and suited to his or her capacity. The deaf child can grow up in school looking forward hopefully to a life of interest and usefulness.

How this may all be fulfilled must be the subject for consideration in the next section.

SECTION VI.—WELFARE WORK FOR THE DEAF.

What has been written so far chiefly concerns intelligent deaf children, and their prospects of living a normal life amongst hearing people, but we must not lose sight of the fact that there are some who do not come into this category. There are those who are slow, those whose education is complicated by other disabilities, physical or mental, and there are also those who come from a home environment which does not help them.

Whilst the schools will do a great deal for these children the prospect for them as adults presents difficulties. The world often proves a hard place for those who cannot keep pace, especially is this true in large cities where work is done under modern industrial conditions.

We must now consider what can be done to help these people as well as the others of whom we have already written. In some countries we find what is known as mission work amongst the deaf. In other countries ordinary welfare societies try to help deaf people who come to them for one reason or another. Doubtless the diffi-

culties met by welfare societies in the past, in helping deaf people, led to the formation of special societies, and it is regrettable that at times there has been opposition to their work.

There seem to be three stages in welfare work for the deaf :

(1) Straightforward mission work, some of which has been going on for very many years. It was nearly always the religious motive which actuated efforts to help the deaf in years gone by, and it was only natural that people who had given money and time and energy in building up schools should be concerned for the welfare of their charges as they grew older. In the old days of silent education a deaf child was at a considerable disadvantage when trying to find work. He naturally turned to somebody for help. If the boy or girl had understanding parents they would do a good deal but many had to turn to the teacher who had known them for years or to some Minister of religion in charge of a mission for the deaf. It is undoubtedly true that most of the mission work that is now being done for the deaf grew out of educational work and for years schools and missions worked in very close association. The work done by missions covers three main grounds :—

(a) General welfare work, such as interpreting at hospitals, administering relief, interpreting in police courts, seeking work for the unemployed and so on. Countless are the tasks that come in the way of one who is trying to help the deaf.

(b) Social activities. Deaf people by their handicap are excluded from most entertainments. They naturally tend to meet each other for conversation and to play games together. If this is not organised by a responsible person they will frequently organise amongst themselves—not always with happy results.

(c) Religious work. Church services are to the deaf of very little help unless they are members of churches which use self-explanatory ritual. Even then they will crave for instruction and will want spiritual advice.

Added to these duties which are generally undertaken by a mission of the deaf there is the fact of the doubly handicapped, the deaf-blind, the deaf-cripples, deaf in mental hospitals and so on. All these people should be cared for in some way or another. It is hard to say that the day for missions for the deaf has passed.

(2) The development of new methods in education has during the last 50 years unfortunately led to a certain estrangement between teachers and welfare workers. That day is happily passing. Occasionally we still find teachers in schools for the deaf who advise parents against allowing their children to attend the missions, and yet the fact remains that within a year or two of leaving

school a very large percentage of deaf children find most of their social and religious life with other deaf people.

The unfortunate feeling that has existed in some places has been due to an over-emphasis of the ideal that deaf children properly educated should be able to take their place amongst hearing people. I say an over-emphasis because the ideal in itself is a good one, but the human side must not be forgotten. However well a deaf man or woman can speak and lip-read still they are left out of a great deal that makes for general happiness in life. On the other hand we have to admit that there have been faults in the mission work that has been done in the past. Too many of the missionaries have been conservative and critical of modern methods; in the missions themselves there have been petty quarrels and jealousies, which is much to be regretted.

The critical attitude on the part of the missionaries is not altogether a matter to be surprised at. They had to deal with the children after they had left the school. They found difficulty in trying to place in work boys and girls who had not succeeded in mastering the oral method whilst it was still in the early stages. However, such people are now rare and it is generally recognised by trained welfare workers that the schools to-day are doing a magnificent work and most teachers realise that welfare workers can help the children to gain full advantage in life from what they learn at school.

(3) So we arrive at the position to-day and are forced to think of the future, inasmuch as some countries, such as South Africa, are in the position of having no organised welfare work, and yet the need for it is frequently felt. How can we meet the need and still avoid mistakes of the past?

In large centres of population there are a number of deaf people, many of them poor, handicapped by their home conditions, possibly not very intelligent, frequently out of work—such people still need to be cared for. They are the weaker brethren who are ever with us. For them a welfare worker is not only a friend but also a protector inasmuch as he may help them to gain such social benefits as are given to those in distress, and he may also prevent them being imposed upon at their work or in other ways.

Then there is the question of social activity and religious expression. Even educated people feel the need for this, and it is of striking interest to notice that all over the world deaf people organise themselves into sports clubs, social clubs and church communities, but it is much to be hoped that their activities will be conducted under the guidance of those who understand the ideals by which educational work for the deaf is inspired, as well

is the actual position in which deaf people live. That is to say welfare workers to-day and in the future should be fully sympathetic with all that the schools are doing, so that there may be a close link between them and school authorities. In some places, in America especially, it has been found better to have somebody attached to the school staff, whose duty it is to seek work for those who are leaving, to keep in touch with the old pupils and to help in every possible way. Such a person is called a "field officer" and can do a very great deal. His limitation will be in the fact that the boys and girls as they leave school scatter to many places. It will be hard for one man to keep in touch with them wherever they may be. They will inevitably tend to associate with other deaf people near where they live, and so come under the charge of some local welfare worker.

In conclusion a word may be said on the question of State-aid for the deaf. It is contended in some places that because the deaf are in a sounder economic position than the blind they do not require the same assistance from the State. This may be true up to a certain point but still they need some help. The poor are poorer because they are deaf; their living is made harder by their handicap. When they are old they are not wanted in institutions that care for the aged and their life is sad indeed unless there is a home for the aged and infirm deaf. It is only fair that if the State grants special funds and facilities and other assistance for the blind they should do the same for the deaf. It will be easy to safeguard privileges from abuse.

SECTION VII.—THE SPIRITUAL LIFE OF THE DEAF (INCLUDING PSYCHOLOGY).

It is difficult to imagine anything more fascinating than to watch the growing apprehension on the part of a little child of the deeper realities of life. The complete trust and unquestioning faith of a little child was described by the Master as the perfect life—"Except ye become as little children ye shall not enter into the Kingdom of Heaven." Does a little deaf child likewise live in a spiritual world or are its concepts purely connected with things that can be seen and handled? Who can answer such a question? It is certainly true that a totally uneducated deaf-mute can apparently have very real understanding of higher values, and enter devoutly into public worship, as any Missioner knows who has a wide experience of working with the deaf and the dumb.

Parents of deaf children will know that they are peculiarly sensitive to spiritual reactions by affection, and signs of approval as well as disapproval and sadness expressed in the face of one to whom the deaf child clings. Still it remains true that a child in whom the sense of hearing is closed loses a great deal of the finer influences which surround a normal child who hears conversation on every side, the particular remarks addressed to it, and the power of music that is everywhere in the air. Deaf children are generally abnormally fond of material comforts, such as food, sleep and general physical well-being.

In school much responsibility rests upon teachers, and those in charge of residential quarters, to see that the unseen world is made real to those who do not hear in a sympathetic, attractive manner. I have personally been in schools for the deaf where the children were taken Sunday by Sunday to the ordinary services at Church, where family worship was conducted apparently without any thought for the children who could neither hear the Scripture that was read, or the long prayer recited whilst they knelt with their faces in their hands.

In purely oral schools it is generally better for the morning worship to be conducted for each class separately rather than for all together in the Assembly Hall. Where finger spelling is permitted this is not so important as the fingers can be read by a fairly large number at the same time.

In spite of what has been written above the practice of taking children to ordinary churches on Sundays is preferable to arranging special services for them which tend to isolate the deaf. But trouble should be taken to let the children share intelligently in the worship. The lesson, hymns, etc., might be ascertained before the service so that places can be found and the children follow by reading. A teacher sitting at the end of a row can easily repeat inaudibly the chief points of a sermon.

In adult life the hunger for spiritual food is present with the deaf as with other people, but it is often difficult for them to enter into a service unless the Minister has taken the trouble to provide them with an outline of the service. For this reason special services have their place, as mentioned in the last section. In London and other places, special services have been arranged for orally trained deaf people, in which spelling and signing are eliminated and a blackboard is used with the deaf people sitting round in small numbers. Attendance at these special services is not necessarily meant to take the place of worshipping in ordinary congregations. They can be made to serve as a guide and help to deaf people when they go to church with their friends.

The psychology of the deaf is a subject which has attracted considerable attention within recent years, but it is difficult to say what very much progress has been made. Does deafness in itself mean that the general concepts are quite different from the concepts of people who hear? This is a question which will only be answered when a deaf man or woman is able to state accurately his, or her, innermost life—and it is very doubtful if this will ever be possible because by the time full age is reached the developing contacts of life will have changed the earlier concepts almost without the knowledge of the deaf person. That a person who has always had the faculty of hearing can interpret the psychology of those who have never heard is likewise almost impossible. It will be admitted that a large number of deaf people exhibit characteristics very definitely different from hearing people, but how far this is due to the fact that very few deaf children receive education under ideal circumstances is hard to say. The increase of speech and lip-reading for the deaf has altered materially this fact and has done a great deal to “normalize” the deaf. At the same time the question has been asked by Drs. Day, Fusfeld and Pintner, who conducted a series of intelligence tests amongst deaf children, whether even better results could not be obtained if more attention were given to building up language by reading (whether of writing or finger-pelling) in the very early stages of education, thereby developing knowledge of language as the surest basis of all teaching, including speech and lip-reading.

Intelligence tests are considered by some people of great value as indications of ability and attainment, whilst other people are inclined to think that they have not the real value which was expected when their use was first advocated. At any rate they have a certain positive value in determining what will probably be the degree of development under certain conditions. Inasmuch as the normal intelligence tests used involve language they are useless for the deaf, but Dr. Pintner of Columbia University, N.Y.C., has designed a number of non-language Mental Tests which are equally suitable for hearing and deaf children. In America extensive surveys have been made amongst thousands of deaf and hearing children and a number of conclusions drawn, the most important being that whilst there is a very marked divergence between the deaf and hearing in regard to educational attainment, the divergence is not so marked intellectually. From this it would appear that the intellectual capacity of a deaf child is probably in every way equal to a hearing child's, the difference in attainment, if any, being the result of the immense difficulties which attend the education of the deaf.

So we may say that in spite of all the marvellous advances that have been made within recent years for the intellectual and spiritual emancipation of the deaf, still much remains to be done. After every opportunity has been given known to modern science, after social conditions have been improved so that the deaf man or woman has no ground whatever to feel isolated from the amenities and activities of life—the fact remains that they will still be deaf, and what this means we do not yet know.

SECTION VIII—PARTIAL HEARING.

It will have been noticed that frequent reference has been made to the fact that in Schools for the Deaf a number of children have residual hearing, and that they can be taught to a very considerable extent by acoustic methods. The question naturally arises as to how much hearing a child may have and still be educated in a school for the Deaf. This question cannot be answered with real satisfaction because many factors are involved. When deafness is of such intensity that the human voice cannot be heard, even with the aid of mechanical appliances, it is clear that the child must attend a special school or class, but there are many children who can hear the voice and recognise speech, but only if spoken into the ear; a few paces from them they cannot distinguish anything. They also will not profit at all by ordinary schooling. Such children are technically known as “hard-of-hearing” rather than “deaf” and unless special educational facilities are provided for them they will be forced to attend a school for the deaf, which is decidedly unfortunate both for them and those who will have to teach them. A child who can distinguish the human voice, however faintly and with whatever difficulty, has a knowledge of what speech and language are which a deaf child, even with considerable residual hearing, can never attain.

To teach these children a totally different method is required either from that used in an ordinary school or that in a school for the Deaf.

The first thing to be established is the degree of hearing lost, and this is by no means easy to ascertain.

When a child does not hear accurately a certain mental laziness and apathy develops which is frequently regarded as definite retardation, or even mental deficiency. A few years ago there was a case in South Africa of a child in an Institution for the Mentally Defective who was properly certified, no account being taken of

the fact that the child was not hearing at all. After some years pressure was brought to bear on the authorities to allow the child to attend a school for the Deaf; the result was to be noted before the Mentally Defective certification was cancelled. Within a year the child was leading in his school standard, and that at an oral school. Similar cases might be quoted over and over again of children reported to the Medical Inspector as hopelessly dull only to be found on examination that a definite degree of deafness had resulted in the child losing almost everything said in the class room.

There are simple tests which can be given when some degree of deafness is suspected, such as "The Whisper Test" and the "Ticking Watch Test," but none are really satisfactory owing to the great difficulty of retaining a regular voice and of being perfectly fair to the child in allowing for nervousness, distracting noises, and so on.

An instrument has now been invented which makes it possible to test a number of children all by the same voice without any possibility of variation. The instrument is known as an Audiometer and is in appearance like a gramophone with head-pieces attached. The record used conveys the sound to the ears through a specially constructed soundbox. On the plate voices are recorded repeating numbers as the speaker moves backwards away from the machine. Those being tested write the numbers on papers specially prepared, and from these papers it is possible to ascertain at about what distance from the listener the voice becomes so indistinct as to be unrecognisable; in this way the degree of hearing loss may be established.

Valuable as the Audiometer is for general survey purposes, it has its limitations, particularly in the fact that it is a purely mechanical test and, as such, leaves opportunity for the human element to influence the test, such as nervousness, inability to write quickly, mental inertia and so on. For this reason children discovered as having apparently considerable hearing loss should be tested a second time, if possible by a different type of audiometer such as one which produces only sounds of varying degree and intensity. An otologist (ear-specialist) should then be consulted if possible in conjunction with an educationalist of experience in dealing with children affected by different degrees of deafness.

When the actual hearing loss has been found out, as far as possible, the decision must then be made as to how the child may be helped educationally, and enabled to take its place in social life. Again, this will depend almost entirely on the degree of hearing the child possesses. If the loss is slight, less than a quarter of normal hearing, it would obviously be unfair to remove the child from the stimulating environment of normal children. But an extra burden of responsi-

bility will be thrown on the teacher to speak very distinctly, to place the child in the front row of seats and watch carefully for any sign of apathy, despondency or even suspicion such as would affect the child's normal intellectual growth. The tax on the teacher will be severe. It will not suffice simply to place the child in a front seat. Care must be taken to make sure the lesson has been heard, and also to guard against any lack of alertness which may have been growing before the fact of partial deafness was discovered. Some children will be found still to have lost a very great deal, and for them extra provision should be made by periodical lessons in lip-reading given either by a visiting teacher or a special teacher giving lessons at some centre which the child can attend. Care must be taken not to remove the child from the company of those who can hear.

If the hearing loss is more than half normal hearing, then the most carefully planned arrangements will not help very much. There is only one alternative and that is to form a special class attached to an ordinary school. The teacher will be trained in teaching lip-reading to those who know what language is. Lessons that are purely oral will be given in the classroom by the teacher ; lessons which are mainly practical will be taken together with the children who hear perfectly. In this way any sense of complete isolation will be destroyed and yet the child will be given opportunity commensurate with its capacity. The possibility of speech deterioration will also be carefully guarded against.

Those referred to here as hard-of-hearing are children, or adults, in whom hearing defect is a permanent condition and who have probably always been so handicapped without fully realising the fact, and even considered by their friends as somewhat heavy, or even a little strange.

There remains still another group who are again quite distinct from the totally deaf, and the hard-of-hearing, namely those who have at one time possessed perfectly normal hearing and then have become deaf, either by disease or accident. These people are generally termed "Deafened."

It is not sufficiently realised that many ailments, usually regarded as of little importance, may produce a condition resulting in deafness ; the common cold sometimes produces a catarrhal condition which persists in spite of all remedies, and adenoids, if neglected, nearly always produce a degree of deafness : if not attended to some of these illnesses may produce a condition known as mastoiditis, which slowly destroys the bone which separates the ear cavity from the brain.

It is therefore of the utmost importance that medical advice should first be sought to ascertain if the deafness is remedial, if possible an ear specialist should be consulted, especially in the matter of removing adenoids, which operation is apparently simple, but needs to be very carefully performed if permanent results are to be obtained in improved hearing.

In spite of every precaution some children and adults will be deafened as a result of these and other diseases, as well as the result of accident. It is not sufficiently realised that during the European War of 1914-18 as many, or more, men were permanently deafened as were blinded, and that the economic handicap to these men is very nearly as great although it has elicited hardly any special sympathy.

An individual, child or adult, who has been deafened by illness or accident, needs to be rehabilitated as much as anyone who has lost other faculties the complications of which are more readily understood. The tendency is for the person concerned to become sensitive, and feel they are becoming a trouble to other people. This is largely due to the fact that other people often regard their deaf friends as difficult and troublesome. The late Mr. F. S. Barnes, of England, after many years of work with both blind and deaf people, said that the average man sees a blind man standing on the kerb and immediately, instinctively, steps forward to help him; the same individual sees a friend coming along they know to be deaf and at once takes a side turning, or crosses the road to avoid meeting him. There is a great deal of truth in this remark. The deafened do not call forth sympathy but rather annoyance from their friends, and this will only change when it has been grasped that deafened people need to rehabilitate themselves to their new conditions in such a way that they will be able to follow the conversation of their friends readily. If some mechanical appliance, such as an electric battery attached to a concealed ear-phone, or an ordinary speaking tube helps, then the deaf person must not be shy about using it, realising that for his friends constantly to speak with a raised voice is trying for them as well as for him.

A word of warning may be given with regard to mechanical appliances as many varieties are marketed, some being advertised extensively in the press. They should never be used without the advice of the ear specialist who has declared that the hearing will not improve. If possible advice should be sought from some reliable organisation for helping the deaf, because many of the instruments sold are very expensive and by no means useful. Writing in general terms, it is very difficult to improve on the old-fashioned speaking tube, or trumpet, which conducts the undistorted voice to the

car. But some electrical ear-phones are good especially for public gatherings or conversations amongst a group of people.

Children who have been deafened beyond hope of remedy will probably have to be treated as hard-of-hearing in the way described above, although they should be taught lip-reading in a way which differs from that employed to teach either the hard-of-hearing or the totally deaf. Dr. Goldstein, of St. Louis, Missouri, U.S.A. maintains that they should go to a hard-of-hearing class, or a School for the Deaf, for a time to be rehabilitated, and then return to an ordinary school to go on where they left off.

Adults who become deafened should take advantage of any facilities which may present themselves to learn lip-reading provided it is always recognised as an aid to hearing, and not a substitute. If the power to hear through the ear is neglected it will react on general alertness, mental and physical.

It will be appreciated that what has been written in this section opens up a field for social service which is very extensive. The number of people either hard-of-hearing, or deafened, is very considerable, and a large percentage of them are undoubtedly affected to such an extent as to interfere with their social and spiritual happiness, and with their economic position.

For this reason in many countries special organisations have been formed to care for the hard-of-hearing and the deafened, as distinct from the totally deaf. The need for special organisation is being more and more widely realised for two reasons:—

(1) The fact that in the past a number of severe cases of hard-of-hearing have been sent to schools for the totally deaf, and so not given their fullest opportunity, (2) the social and economic position of the deafened calling for very definite help in rehabilitation.

Organisations for the hard-of-hearing will assist the educational authorities in discovering hard-of-hearing and deafened children in the schools; will work in close co-operation with otologists hospitals, children's clinics and welfare societies, to ensure that children and people with impaired hearing are sent to the right kind of school, and given extra instruction where required. Lip-reading classes will be arranged for those unable to afford to learn privately, and facilities will be given for frequent, and individual tests by audiometers and other means. In cases of men or women losing work by increasing deafness, every assistance will be given to help them to find a fresh sphere of work if their own is no longer possible.

In South Africa the numbers concerned do not justify the formation of another organisation, but the National Council for the Deaf has rightly realised that it is its duty to include this work within

its programme. Now that a start has been made to carry out hearing surveys, and to open a hard-of-hearing class, it will be incumbent on the Council to set apart someone who can be trained for the work in all its departments, as well as carry out some research work to which reference will be made later.

SECTION IX. RESEARCH WORK.

Before we close this essay with some thoughts connected with the life of a deaf person which it has not been possible to include in earlier sections, and with some reflections on the case of the aged and infirm deaf, we must draw attention to several departments of research work which are receiving attention in some countries, and need closer study everywhere.

(1) *The Pathology of Deafness*, and its connection with Eugenics. Whilst the causes of deafness are widely known to medical science, it is regrettable that human knowledge has not yet succeeded in discovering a secret by which incipient deafness can be prevented before it has time to develop. It is to be hoped that the day will come when some diseases, such as oto-sclerosis, will be recognisable in early infancy, and that effective remedial measures will be as usual as is the present day treatment of ophthalmia neonatorum by which blindness has been prevented in thousands of cases.

At any rate very much can be done by wide publicity concerning the dangers of neglecting catarrh, ear-ache, and other childish ailments which are too often regarded as of little or no importance. Working through medical and child welfare organisations much deafness in later life could be prevented by early treatment through organisations for the deaf.

The prevention of congenital deafness is a very difficult subject because it involves the co-operation of young people who are about to get married. It must not be imagined that deafness can be congenitally acquired only through deaf parents; various diseases work through generations producing different types of defect. The two best known diseases are venereal disease and alcoholism. It is difficult to say what percentage of congenital deafness could be traced to either of these causes. It is very little use trying to persuade people about to marry to stop and consider the eugenic aspect of their proposed union although there are not wanting people who advocate that it is the duty of the State to insist on medical certificates before marriage. The difficulties are too obvious to call for comment. A better method is to build up a general

knowledge amongst people of the fact of congenital defect in the human family, and the suicidal process of national callousness. Before this can be done research work must establish the degree of probability that people already suffering from some defect, or belonging to a family in which different forms of defect have appeared, will continue to produce these defects in their children. At the Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass., U.S.A., valuable research work is already being undertaken by Dr. R. Guilder, who is collecting the histories of a number of families. Charts are being made in which different forms of defects are given a symbol. It is then possible to see at a glance the fact that defects occur at different stages, e.g., a child attending the school may have the following history.

The child being C. . . .

\boxed{x} = Deafness.

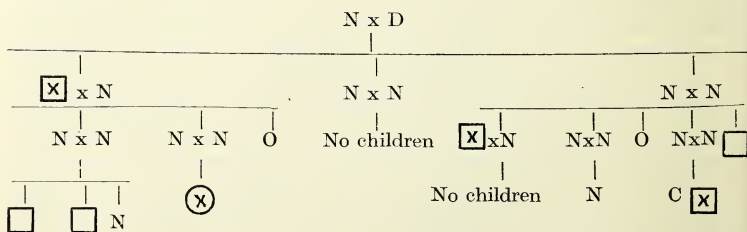
$\odot x$ = Blindness.

\square = Mentally Defective.

O = Still Born

N = Normal, apparently.

D = Original diseases ? Venereal or some other.



The value of charts of this nature is that the fact of congenital defect can be easily seen and will imprint itself on the imagination, and gradually build up an attitude of caution.

(2) *Psychology.* Reference has already been made to the fact that the psychology of deafness is still an infant subject. It is of such importance that all who are working with the deaf, either educationally or in welfare work, should be ready to co-operate with those who are endeavouring to collect statistics. In Berlin a Mr. Leiman, and at Northampton, Mass., U.S.A., Prof. and Mrs. Heider are engaged on elaborate work trying to discover if certain character traits in deaf children are the cause of retardation, and difficulty in learning certain movements in lip-reading. Films are made of teachers instructing certain children who have difficulties—

a character and behaviour record of the child is collected. A number of children who experience the same trouble in the class room are compared on the films of the lesson given to them, and a comparison is also made of their records. It remains to be proved how far there is value in this research.

The work of Drs. Pintner and Fushfeld has already been noted.

(3) *Economic*. That deafness is a handicap in the economic struggle of life is an indisputable fact. Whilst admitting that the vast improvements in the methods of oral instruction, and the greater emphasis on vocational training in the schools must all produce valuable results, still the fact remains that a large number of deaf people find themselves at a very serious disadvantage in earning a living owing to the fact that they are deaf, and employers of labour are slow to give an opportunity to one with any sort of handicap.

Research work as to the relationship between unemployment and deafness, home conditions, type of instruction received, and so on, is being collected in different places. Notably at the present time in Great Britain, where the Minister of Public Health conducted an enquiry through the services of the late Dr. Eicholtz, a former departmental inspector of Special Education, and a man of wide experience with all forms of work amongst the deaf covering a long period of time. A parallel enquiry has recently been undertaken by the National Institute for the Deaf in London, largely in co-operation with the Government survey. The report published is of great value in revealing the economic position of the deaf, the percentage who are entirely self-supporting and the number who are industrially and socially a burden rather than an asset to the Community by reason of their deafness.

In South Africa a similar enquiry is being made by the Worcester School authorities (the largest School for the Deaf in the Union) and by the National Council, but great difficulty is experienced in obtaining true returns, largely owing to insufficient co-operation with religious bodies and social organisations scattered throughout the country.

This points to the urgent need of an international survey of conditions prevailing throughout the world as concerning the deaf-and-dumb, the deaf, the hard-of-hearing and the deafened.

Throughout the world a tremendous amount of work has been done to ameliorate the handicap of deafness by medical science, educationalists, religious and social workers. And still there is a great deal of ignorance and the need of much research work, and of a much closer co-operation between all who are working to overcome deafness. If ever it becomes possible to secure greater co-ordination

of effort and more exhaustive survey of the whole field, the mind of the deaf themselves must not be ignored. After all, it is the life of the deaf we wish to see expanded into such fullness as we can know in this world. There is a temptation sometimes to work for spectacular results for individuals and to imagine that that represents complete victory over the handicap of deafness, but the fullness of life embraces much, and we must give everything we possibly can to help the deaf into this fullness, and must withhold nothing from them which can add to the sum total of their happiness.

SECTION X. CONCLUSION.

It is impossible in one essay to refer to all the different subjects which may be included under the general title of work for the deaf, but there is one matter of very great importance which is very often neglected. When undertaken it is almost always done by an organisation for the deaf. It is the work of speech correction. Stammering, stuttering, lisping, delayed speech, and other forms of speech defect are generally regarded as due purely to a physical or nervous disorder. It is true that this often is the case, although many people of experience are beginning to realise that oral inactivity is the cause of the largest percentage of speech defects.

The systematic treatment of speech defects has been undertaken in very few places, it being considered that it is not in itself a handicap in education except in as far as it limits self-expression. In some overseas cities an itinerant trained teacher is employed by the educational authorities to visit schools where there are children who need lessons in speech correction, in other places the schools co-operate with an organisation for the deaf, usually on Saturday mornings. This school would be arranged in a hall divided into booths. The children are taught individually, one booth being for those who have cleft palates, another for stammerers, and so on. The teaching period lasts half-an-hour, each child having its own record book to make notes, take down exercises and record progress. Children are sent by school authorities, or from clinics, and before they begin their course have their hearing tested. Those who are able to do so pay a nominal sum for the lessons, it being an essential feature of the course to encourage self-effort in every possible way.

In South Africa work of this nature could be quite reasonably undertaken by the National Council for the Deaf if it organises a special department for hard-of-hearing work, including the services

f a trained adviser. If any of the educational authorities decide to employ an itinerant teacher of speech for hard-of-hearing children the same teacher could give lessons in speech correction ; or if a hearing conversation class is opened it might be possible to arrange for children with serious articulation trouble to go to the class once a week for a private lesson. One thing is certain, namely, that children who stammer, stutter or have delayed speech will probably grow worse rather than better if they do not receive some attention. Furthermore in view of the particular difficulties of the country it would be a great help if the National Council for the Deaf could publish a book of simple advice to ordinary teachers who have children they want to help.

It only remains now to add that when everything possible has been done to help the deaf, the hard-of-hearing, the deafened and those handicapped by any form of oral or speech defect, there will remain a number for whom little more can be done than to provide them with a comfortable home, where they can do a little work, where they will have the companionship of congenial people, and a knowledge that they are not a burden to their friends or relatives. Deafness is not always a single handicap ; too often it is accompanied by general infirmity, by blindness, or mental inferiority, which is not disorder. These people will never be able to support themselves to any extent, and to leave them alone with relatives, often poor, in homes frequently crowded, and isolated from other deaf people who appreciate and understand their interest, is to condemn them to a wearisome and sad life indeed. Then there is the fact of old age. What should be the crowning joy of a life well spent is too often the most dreaded experience. Old age for deaf people who are poor, and often infirm, is loneliness indeed. Not wanted in the circle of their personal acquaintances they dread the thought of living in a home for Aged People, however excellent it may be, where there will be no one to converse with, no kindred spirit to lighten the final hours.

Wherever Christian charity has provided educational facilities for the deaf, has helped them in their spiritual, social and material life, it should complete its work by providing a home for the Aged and Infirm Deaf, and the State should recognise its obligation to subsidise such effort either directly, or by granting pensions to the men and women themselves at an earlier age than is customary for those who have never been handicapped.

So the deaf will be enabled to rest and prepare for the great awakening when silence will be broken in the Presence of God, and tongues which have been idle on earth will be employed with the songs of Heaven.

DEAF

APPENDIX I.

THE PREVENTION OF DEAFNESS.

The causes and prevention of deafness present a field of research work which is not at present very much developed in any country, at any rate compared with similar work done concerning blindness. The reason is very largely because the causes of congenital deafness are not fully known, and acquired deafness comes in so many ways that it is difficult to combat it in quite the same way as is done in the case of ophthalmia neonatorum. The only way in which the common causes of deafness can be sufficiently combated is by the spread of information which will improve general hygiene, and organizations such as the National Council for the Deaf in South Africa can help a great deal by a general spread of knowledge that the first signs of deafness must be attended to ; the establishment of school classes for the hard-of-hearing will also concentrate public opinion on the fact that incipient deafness is dangerous.

With regard to the causes and prevention of congenital deafness it is difficult to write because reliable statistics are not yet available, at any rate in South Africa. It is of course known that venereal diseases in parents, and also acute alcoholism are responsible for a high percentage of deafness. The only thing that can be said in this connection is that it is of the utmost importance that such diseases should be made notifiable diseases, and that treatment should be compulsory. It is much to be hoped that during the next few years statistics will be collected in South Africa which will serve as a guide in determining the causes of deafness in this country and indicate possible preventive measures. It is probably out of the question to think of collecting such information from older deaf people, who would be inclined to resent detailed questionnaires concerning themselves and their ancestors, but every effort should be made with the children as they enter their schools, whether schools for the deaf or classes for the hard-of-hearing, and record sheets should be kept. In this matter it is essential that there should be co-operation between medical and educational authorities. There is one way in which considerable preventive work may be done in South Africa, although it will admittedly be costly. It is by educating the public in our villages and smaller towns through the Churches and schools that they must attend to the first signs of deafness, and that if a general practitioner cannot diagnose the condition they should get into touch with a responsible authority. In the case of school children it will probably be best to report to the Medical Inspector, although the conditions prevailing in South Africa are such that medical inspection of schools in the country districts is far too infrequent to be of real value.

The only alternative is for some organization in the neighbourhood to carry the financial obligation of sending the child to an ear specialist. This is a field of service in which the National Council for the Deaf is already trying to help, although they can only work through existing societies. What must always be borne in mind is that it is frequently fatal to neglect the first signs of deafness. For literature on this subject apply to P.O. Box 243, Cape Town.

APPENDIX II.

NURSERY SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

In 1880, at a congress of people interested in the deaf held in Milan, a resolution was passed saying that the best age for a deaf child to begin education was between eight and ten years of age. No doubt the late starting age was prompted by the desire to keep the child in the home environment as long as possible, but very much has been learned since 1880, both concerning education in general and deafness in particular. For children endowed with all their faculties it is now recognised that education should begin as early as possible. Where social conditions are bad and home life difficult, provision is often made for children to attend nursery schools for some years before they are old enough to enter a school at the statutory age. If all this has been found necessary for normal children, how much more is it necessary for deaf children. Left alone in a home where they receive little help, deaf children develop an inferiority complex and physical mannerisms which add to the teacher's difficulties when the time comes to leave home and go to school. There are also many things of value for the training of a deaf child which may be lost if they are not utilised in time. We know that a deaf baby makes noises just as a hearing one, as a result of which parents are often deceived. Teachers of speech know that if the child can be helped before it loses these noises it will be much easier to teach it speech. The possibility of hearing acuity is always present with a deaf child and can be a tremendous help if developed in time.

Naturally it will be acceded that in many homes parents are able to give their deaf child its first steps in education. Reference has already been made to this in the essay, but it will be difficult in the majority of homes, or which reason nursery schools are becoming more and more popular in many countries. One of the largest of such schools that I saw was attached to the fine school for the deaf, St. Michielsgestel, Holland, of which the Principal is Mgr. Herman. The atmosphere in this school is concrete evidence of the fact that it is possible to reproduce homelike conditions even in an institution. The small dormitories, the delightful dining rooms, the happy playrooms, and above all the spirit of love which pervades the whole place is very striking, and all the time the children are learning. Teachers and attendants are careful always to use the same words and phrases. Tables, chairs, doors, etc., are all labelled so that the eyes of the children recognise certain words as associated with certain things. In fact, everything is done which parents are advised to do, but so often find difficult. Actual teaching is graded. Only an hour a day when the child first arrives, increasing gradually to three or four hours by the time the age of six has been reached. Similar schools are to be found in other countries, and there can be no question as to their value for little ones between the ages of three and six.

In South Africa it will probably be difficult to start a nursery school at any of the existing schools for the deaf because of the practical problems involved in bringing very tiny children long distances from their homes, but the ideal must be kept in mind, and it might well be considered that in the larger centres of population small nursery schools should be started, being in close touch with the schools for the deaf, and preparing the children for entrance. It is sometimes contended that the financial burden to the educational authorities is too heavy to make it practical, but it is possible that experience will prove that the work done in these early years will serve as such a foundation for the main work of the school so that a great deal of time and energy will be saved. Instead of children arriving at school as they now very often do with fixed habits, mentally retarded, and with the speech organs so inflexible that their training becomes difficult; instead of all this, which involves years and years of patient work to correct, we would have children who had grown up in the atmosphere of oralism, and so the schools would just build, instead of having, as at present is often the case, break down before they can build up.

APPENDIX III.

DO DAY SCHOOLS OR BOARDING SCHOOLS BEST FULFIL THE TRUE OBJECTIVES IN THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF?

The main objective in the education of the deaf is that the deaf child should be as normal as possible in its interests, attainments, and general reactions to life. It is a far-reaching question to ask if this result can be best obtained in a day school or a boarding school. In the "Survey of American Schools for the Deaf," published by the National Research Council in 1928, one of the findings was that day schools seem to be attaining more educationally than residential schools. Following immediately on this the next finding stated that day schools possess in general a larger percentage of children of higher mental calibre than do the residential schools. This is almost certainly a fact everywhere. The slower, backward children, especially those who come from poor homes, invariably go to boarding schools, whereas the bright and intelligent children who get on happily at home will be sent to a day school if there is one for them to go to.

The limitations of a day school for the deaf are in the fact that they are generally small, and so classification becomes difficult, and also vocational training, which is so essential for deaf children, is not possible in the same way as is the case at a large residential school. The chief advantage of a day school is in the fact that the deaf children are kept in close association with hearing people in the home circle. Of course if the homes are bad, overcrowded, squalid, this is a distinct disadvantage, not an advantage. The chief limitations of a boarding school for the deaf is in the fact that association with hearing people is difficult, but it can be overcome, especially if such organizations as Scouts and Guides are run in connection with the school. The obvious advantage of a residential school is in the fact that the children are under the constant supervision of people who can assist them in every way. The number of children being large makes classification possible, and it is also possible to have a variety of trades so that the children can be trained for that to which they show some aptitude.

In South Africa we have three residential schools, two of them small and one large. Attending the two small schools are a number of children who live in the neighbourhood, so that they are day schools as well as residential schools. The Union Education Department have declared that their policy is centralisation, that they do not propose to start new schools in the Union. Taking everything into consideration it seems to me that this is the right policy, at any rate until the time comes when we have much larger cities than any of those at present existing in South Africa. At the same time one realises that it is very difficult for parents to part with their small children, although those who have done so seldom if ever regret it. It might well be that small day-schools, or a class for deaf children attached to an existing school, would serve a very useful purpose in large centres of population. If these schools were in close touch with the central school, conducted in entirely the same way, they would serve as preparatory schools, it being recognised that when a certain standard has been reached, or a certain age, the children will be passed over to the central school for further education, especially vocational training. Such a local small day school will inevitably develop into a complete school in years to come, but it would be easy for the educational authorities to fix the number of children who must be attending the school for it to receive recognition as a place where a deaf child can receive its entire training.

APPENDIX IV.

MECHANICAL AIDS.

In the course of the essay it has frequently been stated that many deaf children have a certain amount of hearing. It is also true that there are many children with considerable hearing in schools for the deaf owing to the fact that special classes for the hard-of-hearing have not been started in many places. Any hearing that a deaf child may possess is of incalculable value, in fact it has been said that nothing can take the place of hearing in teaching speech to a deaf child. There are two things to be done: the first is to establish the degree of hearing, and the second to use it to the fullest possible extent. In order to discover degrees of hearing there are now several mechanical instruments which give a perfectly equal test wherever they are used. The most known of these are the various Audiometers, made by the Western Electric Company of America. These instruments vary according to the user for which they are required. If testing a group of people presumably with normal hearing, the instrument known as 4-A Audiometer is most useful. For testing those whose hearing is so impaired that they cannot recognise the human voice, a different type is required. No. 2-A is probably the best for general purposes. It produces eight different notes, i.e., sounds of eight different frequencies. If the child or adult can hear certain of these notes at 128 and 256 vibrations per second, then they could hear the actual voices of men, women and children if those voices could be reproduced as loud as the corresponding notes on the Audiometer. A great difficulty which attends the testing of hearing whether by Audiometer or by natural voices or with their instruments producing vibrations, is the difficulty of securing perfect quiet. A sound-proof room is very difficult to find. The only one that I have seen which was specifically made for hearing tests is a room in the Psychological Department of the Medical School attached to Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. This room has double walls and three doors, one door attached to the outer wall, one door attached to the inner wall, and special door between. All these doors are secured by felt fittings. The room itself is lined throughout similar to a broadcasting studio.

The purpose of establishing whether there is any degree of hearing in a deaf child is in the fact that it may become possible to reproduce the human voice loud enough for it to be heard by the child. In order to try and do this, to accomplish this, a number of mechanical instruments have been made. They are all based on the principle of simple amplification, so that as far as possible the natural human voice may be used. The most popular instrument in America at the present time is called the Radioear, invented by a deafened man, Mr. E. A. Myers. Its principle is that of the telephone, with amplification. A number of earphones attached convey the sound direct to the listener. By means of adjustments on the earphones each child or person can regulate the intensity. I have seen this instrument working in a number of schools for the deaf, and am bound to admit that it seems very successful. Lessons given with the Radioear enable a child to recognise sounds quickly and reproduce them at once, for the instrument is so arranged that having heard the teacher's voice through the earphone, the child can turn and speak to the instrument, and so hear its own voice. There are a number of other similar instruments, too numerous to mention. The whole question is receiving great deal of attention, especially at Manchester University, in England, where Mr. and Mrs. A. W. G. Ewing are devoting much time to this research.

In America almost every school for the deaf has at least one amplifying instrument, but it is at the Central Institute, St. Louis, Missouri, that Dr. L. Goldstein is concentrating and trying out every new instrument that he can hold of. He has invented a name for teaching by means of mechanical instruments, musical instruments and anything that is sound-producing. He calls it "acoustic training," i.e., sound stimulation applied directly to the auditory apparatus.

All the time it must be remembered that these things are an aid in teaching and care should be taken not to waste time trying to use them with children who do not profit by them. It is doubtful if the degree of hearing is ever increased, but stimulation means activity, so that the child learns to hear accurately, and appears to hear better. There is in South Africa one instrument in use, made locally in Cape Town by Mr. Coyne, and used at the Dominican School. It is called an Ampliphone.

APPENDIX V.

BACKWARD AND MENTALLY DEFECTIVE DEAF.

A certain percentage of deaf children will be backward in capacity and attainment. With modern methods of education, beginning at an early age these children have a better chance of developing so far as they are capable than in the past, when their education was neglected for many years. The question is sometimes asked as to whether these children can be trained by pure oral methods. The answer is generally in the negative. Some schools are so rigidly opposed to manual methods of instruction that they insist on trying to teach speech and language, however slow the child may be in attainment. At Mount Airey School for the Deaf, just outside Philadelphia, they admit that the backward children cannot be taught by pure oral methods but refuse to allow manual methods. Instead they use only writing instructions, but it is rather tedious, and the question may be asked as to what is the fundamental difference between writing on the paper with a pencil or in the air with the hand. The most obvious thing seems to be that backward deaf children should be instructed by all possible methods, it being kept clearly in mind that the main emphasis of their instruction must be on vocational work.

With regard to mentally defective deaf children, it is clearly impossible that they should be retained in a school for the deaf unless it were possible to have a separate class, separate attention, and so on. The only alternative is the school for the feeble minded. The main thing is that no deaf child should be sent to a school for the feeble minded unless it has first been at a school for the deaf, in order to see if it is capable of receiving education.

APPENDIX VI.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE DEAF.

In most countries it is required that teachers taking up special work, such as the education of the deaf, should hold an ordinary teaching certificate and have had some experience of actual school work. Then they are required to teach in a school for the deaf which is recognised as a training school for teachers. At the end of the period of training they sit an examination set by an independent body (in England known as the College of Teachers of the Deaf), if they are successful in obtaining the certificate issued by that College, then they are entitled to additional remuneration according to the scale laid down by the educational authorities.

Graduate teachers should be able to obtain special certificates with a year's work, but in some places two years is allowed to obtain the certificate. If a teacher is unable to obtain a certificate in two years it is clear that he, or she, is not competent for the special demands of the work.

In addition to this system for granting certificates to teachers of the deaf in many overseas countries they have a system of short "refresher courses" to enable teachers to keep in touch with the latest advances in their particular work.

No school is recognised as training teachers unless they are able to satisfy the independent body of examiners that their syllabus and curriculum cover the necessary field of work.

In South Africa there are so few schools for the deaf that it will be many years before the country can expect to train all the needed teachers. The majority will, however, look to obtain their training in the Union so that it is imperative that there should be set up a board of examiners independent of the schools at which, presumably, the teachers will be trained.

Frequent "Refresher courses" will be difficult but it should not be too much for the educational authorities who are responsible for the education of the deaf to organize a course every five years when it might be possible to arrange for a visiting teacher from overseas to give the chief lectures.

It cannot be too strongly stressed that the teaching of the deaf is so technical, and so difficult, that no teacher can afford to ignore the experience of others with a larger and wider field of opportunity. It is a very real difficulty in work of this nature in South Africa, that teachers lack the stimulus of encouragement which comes from other teachers engaged in similar work.

Whilst so many difficulties continue in the Union it seems to me a desirable thing that full use should be made of the Empire exchange system. For several years it will probably be a real help to the larger schools for the deaf if a trained teacher from overseas could be prevailed upon to come out for a year, in exchange with a teacher from this country who, in turn would profit immensely by the experience, and contacts, of a year overseas. Such changes might also be tried with other countries, notably Holland, if the language difficulty is not too great.

APPENDIX VII.

MUSIC IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The use of musical instruments in auricular training has already been referred to. Wherever the training of residual hearing is attempted the piano, rhythm bands and singing are employed. A rhythm orchestra of thirty children would employ wooden blocks, bells, triangles, hollow wood, cymbals, clacks (for very young children), clappers, a big drum and a small drum. It is impossible to doubt the enjoyment of the children when they play these instruments. At one entertainment I was privileged to attend in America the obvious enjoyment of the children as they played one rhythmic piece after another was so great that the whole audience was moved to continuous applause. The piano is generally used by the children standing round with their hands placed on the piano so as to get the vibrations, watching at the same time the teacher's hands striking the chords. What is called singing really voice exercises, up and down the scale, sometimes with children who have considerable hearing culminating in a simple tune. The value of these exercises is very great as it is always difficult for a deaf child to modulate his voice, but by constantly exercising at a piano, assisted by vibrations and rhythmic movements, the child gets more accustomed to raising or lowering his voice at ordinary times, the teacher being able to indicate by a slight movement of the finger which is employed during rhythmic exercises the need of modulation in the class room. As has been stated in the essay, not all children will be able to enter into these exercises, although most of them enjoy the movement which accompanies rhythmic playing and dancing, and that it will be found advantageous for most deaf children to have some definite rhythmic training.

Of quite a different nature are the brass bands which I heard in a few American schools, notably in the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, commonly called the Fanwood School. These bands are generally part of a military system so much loved by certain people in America, which is somewhat curious, as one usually regards America as a land of ideals. The brass band I heard at the Fanwood School consisted of about 28 instruments of unusual character, and was played by boys with a certain amount of hearing,

but not enough to make them appreciate finer tones as they played. They stood in the centre of the courtyard and played the children in and out of school, into the dining hall, round and round the playground for drilling, and so on. I noticed that the children keep their eyes on the band all the time, so that I am forced to conclude that they get most value from keeping time with the movements of the trombone or the beating of the drum. As for the value of these bands I prefer to keep silent, hoping that the bands will one day follow my example, but then I am really no judge, because I have never admired mechanical music. As to the value of the military system in general, there is possibly no call for me to write, as it is hardly likely to be introduced into South Africa. Exponents of the system claim that it is invaluable in maintaining discipline where there are three or four hundred children, but as the years 1914-1918 have converted me into a pacifist I find it hard to endure any signs of militarism. However, as I was treated to a most excellent dinner after the display at the New York Institution, it will perhaps be ungracious to write any more, especially as in every other respect the work of that school impressed me deeply for its excellence. I can only wish they had all been Boy Scouts and Girl Guides.

APPENDIX VIII.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION AND ADEQUATE MAINTENANCE.

The value of education is admitted in all civilised countries by the fact that parents are compelled to send their children to school between certain ages. If this is considered necessary for children possessed of all their faculties, how much greater is the need in the case of children who have one or other of their faculties impaired, and so have more to do and further to go to keep pace in life.

Unfortunately in South Africa the Education Act simply provides that children must attend school if they are capable of receiving the education provided, which means that if it is established that a child is too deaf to profit by ordinary schooling it is not compelled to attend school. So strangely lacking in understanding are many parents that it is difficult to persuade them to send their children to special schools, and so there are numbers of cases in which deaf children are kept at home, generally until they get to be twelve or thirteen years of age and become a little troublesome, and then their parents think about schooling. Not only is this unfair to the child, but it is false economy, because it costs more to give the attention required when a child enters school late than it does to teach a child gradually and so gain the full benefit of the education given.

At a meeting held in Johannesburg in 1929 the following resolution was passed by the newly-formed South African National Council for the Deaf:—

“ This Conference wishes to emphasize the right which every child has of receiving an education suited to his capacity. Where compulsory education is considered necessary for normal children, it is obviously equally necessary, in fact, more so, for children with limited or defective capacities. Conference, therefore, strongly urge the Government to make education for the deaf compulsory for Europeans and to take steps at an early opportunity of introducing the necessary amending legislation; ”

but up to the present every effort has failed to persuade the Minister of Education to introduce the necessary amendment in the legislation which is required to secure compulsory education for the deaf. It is difficult to understand the reason except as a supposed measure of financial economy, but, as already stated, this is false saving, because no nation really prospers unless its handicapped people are adequately cared for, so that they may become as small a charge as possible on public funds or charity. Added

to this appendix there is a quotation from the Act for the Education of Deaf and Blind Persons which is on the Statute Book of the Province of Saskatchewan. This is typical of the situation in most places and it is to be hoped that something similar will soon be on the Statute Book in South Africa.

Adequate maintenance is a corollary to compulsory education, although it is not necessary to wait until an Education Act is passed for an improvement on the present position in South Africa. It cannot be contended that £24 per annum in the case of white children, and £12 per annum in the case of coloured children, is adequate for their maintenance whilst receiving schooling. Leaving out the question that there is very little difference in the cost of upkeep whether the children are of one colour or another, it is safe to say that the burden which is thrown on public charity by this very small state assistance is unfair. Added to this is the fact that parents must establish that they are unable to pay for the maintenance of their children, and if they are able to pay it is left to the schools to collect the money. The right and just thing would be for the state to admit that a deaf child is entitled to be educated equally with a hearing child, and to provide enough to secure that education, collecting what they feel should be paid by the parents or by local authorities. The attached copy of the Saskatchewan Act is typical and what is done in many places. By the state taking over full responsibility for education and maintenance of handicapped children it does not follow that the principle of voluntary control will be destroyed. The school can still be erected and the buildings maintained by Church or private charity, probably a very desirable thing.

EXTRACTS FROM STATUTES OF SASKATCHEWAN, 1930.

Clauses 1. and 2.—Title.

Clause 3.—(1) Every blind child and every deaf child between the ages of seven and sixteen years, inclusive, certified by a physician as mentally and physically fit to profit by the education provided in a school for the blind or a school for the deaf, shall attend such school for such periods as the minister may in each case determine.

(2) A parent or guardian who refuses to allow any such child under his care to attend a school as required by sub-section (1), shall be guilty of an offence and liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding \$25. 1928, c. 53, s.3.

4.—(1) The minister may in his discretion permit admission to such institutions of persons under the age of seven and over the age of sixteen but no person shall be admitted thereto except for the purpose of education and instruction.

(2) The maintenance and support of such person shall be the duty of the parent or legal guardian requiring his admission. 1928, c.53, s.4.

Clauses 5-8 refer to the erection of buildings, staff, etc.

9.—(1) The expenses incurred by the minister for the maintenance and education of any blind or deaf person may be collected from the municipality in which the parent or legal guardian of such person usually resides or from such parent or legal guardian, but not more than two-thirds of such expenses may be collected from the parent or legal guardian.

(2) In case such expenses are paid by the municipality the municipality may in its discretion collect from the parent or legal guardian a portion not exceeding two-thirds of such expenses.

(3) Such expenses may include necessary outlay for clothing to enable a person to attend an institution for the blind or the deaf. 1928, c.53, s.9.

10. The minister shall provide the text books, apparatus and supplies which are necessary for properly carrying on the education of persons admitted to such institutions. 1928, c.53, s.10.

Clauses 11-16 include regulations regarding duties of officers, the right of the minister to hold official inquiries, etc.

APPENDIX IX.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF DEAF CHILDREN.

Frequently in the essay it has been stated that it is of the utmost importance that children in a school for the deaf should be properly classified.

Important as this is it is also surprisingly difficult. It is reported that an experienced inspector of schools for the deaf once said that there is only one way to classify the deaf, and that is to give each child a teacher and so make each one a class in itself.

Whilst it is true that almost every deaf child is so different from any other deaf children that it requires a considerable amount of individual care and attention, it is also quite certain that grouping into classes there must be, at any rate for many years to come. Even in the most expensive private schools for the deaf some sort of grouping is inevitable, and at times advantageous.

The difficulty comes in the larger schools where classes of ten and eleven are insisted upon by those in authority. It then becomes difficult to classify in such a way that every child has a fair opportunity.

The late Mr. F. G. Barnes, in a paper entitled "The Scientific Classification of Deaf Children for the Purposes of Instruction," obtainable from the National Institute for the Deaf, London, maintains that in every school for the deaf there must be classification, based on the following four main classes :

- (a) Age.
- (b) Ability.
- (c) Degrees of deafness.
- (d) Degrees of speech.

In large schools it will be possible to classify even more in detail, but always these four groups will be the main basis.

The larger the number of pupils in a school for the deaf the easier it will be to classify them, in very small schools real classification is almost out of the question.

Classification of the deaf is difficult when all the conditions of education are reasonably ideal, when children come to school at the same age, when there is compulsion brought to bear on parents who keep their children away from school without reason ; but when children arrive at school at all ages, stay at home long periods in the year and leave before they have really finished their course, then proper classification is very difficult, and good results almost unobtainable.

APPENDIX X.

THE MOST SUITABLE TRADES FOR THE DEAF, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SOUTH AFRICAN CONDITIONS.

"From the economic point of view, the deaf and dumb are potentially the most remunerative of all the special classes suffering from physical defect." This statement is made in a pamphlet on the industrial conditions of the deaf and dumb, issued by the National Institute for the Deaf, London ; and it is true.

It implies that it pays to train deaf children to be good workers. It is difficult to determine how much it costs the state, and private charity, to educate deaf children in South Africa, but based on the experience of other countries the figure is probably in the neighbourhood of £75 a year, that is £750 if ten years of schooling is given, if twelve years £900. How can the best return be obtained for this expenditure ? There are several factors to be considered.

It is obvious that the primary defect caused by deafness is cultural and linguistic retardation which is very difficult to overcome. A sound knowledge

of the normal means of communication is essential if the deaf are to take a place in ordinary life, to acquire this must be the first object of education. At the same time it should be remembered that extensive performance tests have proved that deaf people are generally not lacking in manual dexterity.

If a deaf child is left to obtain most of its vocational training and experience after leaving school there will be serious difficulties. Very few foremen have the time or ability to give special attention to a deaf apprentice. Modern trade conditions require speedy work. It is therefore clear that the more vocational work which can be done in school, the better the chance to obtain employment afterwards.

Another factor which often creates a difficulty in the minds of employers is the fear that deaf people will be prone to accidents. As a matter of fact deafness generally produces alertness and quickness of eye which is a real safeguard in industry, but this can only be proved when it can be demonstrated that the deaf pupil has actually worked a long time without accidents. The trades which have been found most suitable for the deaf are :—
 for boys—boot-making, tailoring, carpentry and cabinet-making, baking and, especially in America, printing.

for girls—dress-making, laundering, millinery and cooking.

It will be noticed that for the boys these are trades most suitable for industrial areas, whereas in South Africa a very large number of boys come from rural districts, will inherit farms and should learn to live an agricultural life. It is good to know that at the Worcester School for the Deaf the teaching of farm work is included in the vocational programme, also brick-making and house building. This is very important and needs to be developed.

In the training of the deaf care must be taken to balance the demands of the locality where the worker will presumably live, and natural aptitude for some particular work.

APPENDIX XI.

THE BEST METHOD TO BE EMPLOYED IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

This is a question which is exercising the attention of educationalists in Europe. In America there is Gallaudet College, Washington, the only institution in the world solely devoted to the higher education of the deaf. The method employed is the combined method. Whilst facilities are given to students who have acquired speech to practise and improve that art, the picture room method is that of rapid finger spelling (in America the one hand method is universal). It is difficult to imagine that the curriculum could be covered in any other way. The college is much criticised in many quarters, still it continues to turn out graduates with a very liberal education. There are no institutions for higher education in other countries, but as the opening one is part of the educational programme in Great Britain it will be interesting to see if they attempt to work by pure oral methods.

So far as South Africa is concerned the question does not arise. Any case of deaf students desiring to continue their studies after matriculation are likely to be rare for many years, and if there are any such students each one will have to find a way to follow the study to which he, or she, is attracted. It will have to be done at one or other of the universities, or university colleges, and will mean a great deal of concentrated work and study. The more proficient the student is in speech-reading the easier it will be for him, or her, to follow a lecturer—at the same time I am personally of opinion that such a student will do well to be fluent in reading finger spelling for it is highly probable that one of their fellow students will know, or learn, that alphabet and so be a great help to their deaf friend. It comes back to the fact which Dr. Eicholz states in his report to the Minister of Health in Great Britain—when a deaf student is attempting to acquire knowledge in the higher realms they should be able to obtain it by every possible means.

SHOULD THE DEAF MARRY?

This question is asked so frequently that a short answer must be attempted. It depends entirely on the nature of the deafness. Deafness acquired by accident, or as a result of most illnesses, will not be hereditary, and is therefore not a cause for the deaf to refrain from marriage. Hereditary deafness is two-fold in nature. (1) It is the result of diseases often expressed in other ways besides deafness, especially venereal diseases. It is desirable that those who know themselves to be suffering from congenital venereal disease should weigh seriously the responsibility of marriage, involving as it will the possibility of stillborn, blind and deaf children, and many other forms of physical handicap. It is a very difficult thing to expect a deaf man to consider this, especially as such diseases are most frequently found in people of low mental calibre. However, educated people should have the position put in front of them in ways suggested in the essay, and gradually public opinion will help them to realise that the line of self-sacrifice is for them the right one. Such people should call forth our deepest admiration.

(2) Hereditary deafness from other causes, many of which are still unknown. Consanguinity almost certainly is a cause of deafness, although not every scientist will admit that it is an established fact. The interesting feature is that deafness which comes from consanguinity or from unknown cause is very often the only handicap in an otherwise perfectly normal or often brilliant person, e.g.: I knew two deaf children in Birmingham, England whose parents were both deaf mutes, and deafness was everywhere in the family on both sides. These two children both did extremely well in the school for the deaf, leading their classes all through. They have both done very well in after life, and are in addition very charming people and an asset to the society in which they live. In Boston, Mass., I met a deaf lad who is well on his way to securing a degree at Harvard University, relying entirely on his speech and lip-reading. Both his parents are deaf mutes who rely on the manual alphabet for conversation. I quote these cases to emphasize that the mere fact of deafness does not in itself mean that an individual becomes a burden to the community. It is true that the cost of their education will be slightly higher than the average, but in every other way they can be perfectly useful citizens, and may even be an asset by virtue of marked gifts. The place of a deaf person in the community is largely a matter of social adjustment. Given adequate education and a congenial sympathetic environment there is every reason why they should contribute their full quota to life. Some years ago I remember hearing Dr. Kerr Love of Glasgow University appeal to a representative group of deaf people in Great Britain that every one of them should not enter upon marriage without first ascertaining if deafness is likely to be continued by that marriage. Saving what has been written about deafness as a result of anti-social diseases, I cannot feel that there is a call for deaf people to refrain from marriage because of the possibility that some of their children or grandchildren may be deaf. It does not suffice to say that they should marry hearing people. If the deafness is congenital it will probably be continued whether one or both of the parents are deaf and it has to be admitted that whilst there are cases of deaf and hearing people being happily married, such cases are rare. Deaf people are generally much happier when married to one who can provide that mutual society, comfort and help which the Anglican Prayer Book quotes as one of the causes for which matrimony was ordained. This is really a question of eugenics—is it desirable or possible to produce a physical perfect world? Is there now a power above the natural which overrides the affairs of men in a way beyond our understanding? If the world in the past had developed on purely eugenic lines, would there have been half the geniuses the fruit of whose labours we still enjoy?

APPENDIX XIII.

THE USE OF SIGNS IN RELIGIOUS SERVICES FOR THE DEAF.

Without question the use of gestures by the deaf in the past is largely the reason why in the minds of many deafness is connected with stupidity. Much of the signing used in the past was grotesque, crude, and the subject of ridicule on the part of hearing people. The inevitable result was that as educational methods improved there was a certain revulsion against the use of these signs which was supported by the fact that they do not help language as used by most people. But life does not consist of speech alone. It includes music and all forms of colour in sound, and the deaf are denied all this. Lip-reading, speech and finger spelling are all forms of conversation, they are not music. Signs alone provide something which brings vividness and colour into conversations between deaf people. What is language? It is a means of communication between individuals, a method of expressing thought in a manner understandable to others. Languages differ in construction and form as well as in sound. For those who cannot hear, gesticulation is a natural language. It may not be pleasant to others, in the same way as it is conceivable that the sound of Russian may be unpleasant to a Chinaman. It may at times appear crude, but is there not crudity of expression in every language? Cultured people avoid crudities. How real the language of signs is to the totally deaf can only be realised by those who have seen them in use. Eyes, face, hands, all are employed as vehicles to express thought, and that in a manner which expresses also the personality of the individual. It is safe to say that there is no other language which can express to a group of deaf people the deep things of God with such rapidity, vividness, clearness and simplicity as the language of signs. The use of signs by the adult deaf does not mean that they are unable to employ speech and lip reading. They will be bilingual, using speech and lip reading in everyday life, with the people whose language it is, and using signs when with those whom they are a natural and congenial language. Nor does it mean that signs will be used in school. It will be admitted that the teaching of speech and language is so difficult that concentration must be secured all the time. The position is surely analogous to that of an English parent who, desiring his child to learn French, sends it to school in France where it will not hear its own language possibly for months on end. That it is in the nature of cruelty to deny to the adult deaf the use of signs in their church services and social gatherings may be illustrated by a remark that was made to me at Canterbury, England. I went to say goodbye to a deaf lady with whom I had been in touch for some years. She was trained in a purely oral school and was a good lip reader with excellent speech. Her teacher had always impressed upon her parents that she must never be allowed to associate with other deaf people if they used signs. I reasoned with her parents. They admitted that she had many lonely hours in the home and in the end they gave way and she came to church regularly and entered into social activities. Being happily placed financially, she was able to help the poor and when I went to say goodbye, she gave me a book as a gift and her mother said, "Her life has been revolutionized since she has been in touch with other deaf people."

APPENDIX XIV.

HEARING TESTS.

Apart from specialist tests there are several useful ways of testing hearing which can be made by any teacher, or person using ordinary care—it being remembered that every test of hearing can only serve to indicate that there is a defect, no final diagnosis is possible without consulting an otologist.

The two simplest tests, which can be given when an instrumental test is not available, are (a) the Whispering Test, (b) the Watch Test. The Whispering Test consists of questions asked in an even, whispered voice whilst the person being tested stands with back to the one testing. The question should first

be asked when about 15 feet away, then gradually the person testing should move towards the child or individual being tested, until they can hear and give the correct answer. A full description of this test was published in the Cape Educational Gazette of 1st October, 1931. The Watch Test consists of holding a watch, first to one ear then to the other, noting the furthest range at which the ticking can be heard. If this test is given the operator should always first measure with his own ears the distance of hearing, because every watch varies slightly in the sound it makes. When anyone can only hear at a range of two-fifths of the distance at which a normal person hears, then they are to be regarded as having seriously defective hearing.

However, neither of these tests can be regarded as really satisfactory for many obvious reasons. The personal factor, both in operator and person tested, is so very variable. Much more reliable are the instruments known as Audiometers. There are many types marketed, of which the simplest in construction, and the easiest to operate, are the 4A and 2A, made by the Western Electric Co. of New York. The 4A is for group tests, the 2A for individual tests. It is not necessary to describe these instruments in detail as the S.A. National Council for the Deaf has already obtained a 4A machine which is being used in co-operation with the Provincial Educational authorities; they intend to purchase a 2A machine very shortly.

The value of audiometric testing is being increasingly recognized by both the medical and educational world. A new era of opportunity is afforded to the Hard-of-hearing, and to the Deafened, whose defect can now be diagnosed to a very fine degree, so that every effort may be concentrated on providing the right treatment where treatment is useful, or exact instruction in speech reading and clear articulation when the person is still young enough to profit thereby.

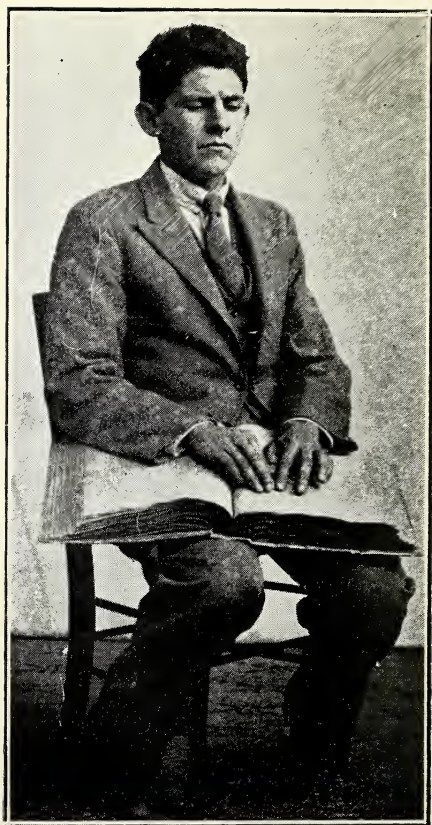
APPENDIX XV.

INSTRUMENTAL AIDS TO HEARING.

People who are suffering from increasing deafness naturally hope that it will be possible to find some aid to hearing. In spite of assurance from an otologist that audibility will inevitably decrease they retain a conviction that "something can be done to improve the tragic situation." This human longing is often played upon by advertisers trying to sell an instrumental aid to hearing. We are all familiar with the common advertisement, "The Deaf can Hear." As a matter of fact for most deafened persons there is nothing to take the place of learning speech reading from a competent teacher, at the same time instruments do sometimes help.

Instrumental aids to hearing can be grouped into (1) non-electrical and (2) electrical aids. The former include the familiar ear trumpet which, in a large number of cases, is by far the best help because it does not distort the voice. The number of instruments marketed to-day is so great that it is impossible to make a list. In a recent survey of instrumental aids to hearing made in America no less than seventy-four were tested. The report of this survey can be obtained from the Federation of Organizations for the Hard-of-hearing, 1601 35th Street N.W. Washington, D.C., U.S.A. The chief thing to be remembered is that no two deafened persons hear exactly alike, in every case audibility varies in degree, range and intensity. For this reason it is impossible to recommend any one instrument to an individual. All reputable manufacturers are prepared to allow prospective purchasers to try an instrument before actually buying it. Those who are not willing to allow this should be avoided. In view of the great importance to the deafened of obtaining the best instrument, suited to the individual need, the S.A. National Council for the Deaf will perform a real service if they invite all makers of hearing aids to submit one to the Council for examination. A pamphlet addressed to the Deafened should be prepared warning them against hasty decision, advising them to acquire the art of speech reading, and submitting a descriptive list of all instruments which have been tested by the Council.





A pupil of the Worcester School for
the Blind reading Braille.

ESSAY II.

THE LIFE OF A BLIND PERSON.

SECTION I. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

Before beginning to follow the life of an imaginary blind person as it would be observed by wise parents, sympathetic friends, or later by the blind man himself, there are certain matters which must be noted and considered.

They do not actually come within the life of a person who is born blind, or who has become blind at a very early age ; but they are of importance to any one who would think of blindness and all its implications.

Some of these subjects had better claim our attention now, the others we will leave for a concluding section.

The first is a question which is frequently asked, namely, What are the causes of blindness, and can any of them be prevented from developing into total blindness ?

The causes of blindness may be roughly grouped under three heads : (A) Infantile illnesses, (B) Accidents, (C) Hereditary causes. In many countries there exist special organisations known as societies for the prevention of blindness which publish most useful literature on these subjects.

Anyone who wishes to make a close study should try and secure some of this literature ; here it is sufficient to say that every opportunity should be taken to care for babies' eyes from infancy. In some countries it is compulsory by law for doctors and midwives to wash the eyes of every newborn baby with Silver Nitrate solution. This is to prevent an eye trouble which is very common and if neglected develops into total blindness known as Ophthalmia Neonatorum.

This is a perfectly simple and painless thing to do, and in countries where it has been compulsory for some years the decrease in the number of blind babies is astonishing. There are of course other illnesses which may lead to blindness, the thing to be remembered at all times is to ask a doctor for advice if there is the slightest appearance of sore eyes in a little baby.

With regard to accidents there is little to say, except to urge the importance of parents, nurses, servants and teachers taking every precaution. A pair of scissors left lying on the table may

fall when a toddling child pulls the table cloth, if they fall on the child's eyes it may be blind for life. In crowded cities it has been found useful to issue posters illustrating possible accidents ; these posters put up in clinics, schools and other public places must exercise a great influence on the minds of those who are apt to be careless of details.

The subject of the hereditary causes of blindness is one which many people shirk, but it must engage the attention of all thoughtful people. Many diseases in adults which may produce blindness in their offspring can be successfully treated if taken in time. Here again we cannot say more than that the advice of a good doctor is now available to almost every one—remember, this is a case in which the thoughtful person saves another and not only himself.

One word may be added about those who are born blind, or become blind owing to inherited disease.

They should be the subject of every care and consideration ; at the same time when they develop into adult life their condition should be frankly discussed with them if they are of sufficient intelligence. By this means their co-operation may be gained in the important work of research, and the possibility of continuing the trouble may be avoided.

Following close on the question of preventing blindness, arises that of saving the sight of such children as are likely to become blind if neglected. Every teacher will be familiar with children who quickly suffer from eye strain, are hurt by the light, or show other signs of eye trouble. In most countries such symptoms are discovered by the medical inspector of schools if the parents have failed to detect them. But it is not sufficient to notice that a child has weak eyes, nor even to notice for two or three years that the eyes are gradually getting worse. In many cases such sight can be saved. The ideal procedure is that the educational authorities should collect such children together into a special school or into a special class attached to an existing school. Where this is not possible much may be done by the exercise of ordinary common sense on the part of parents and teachers. A child with failing sight can be given a front seat in a class room ; its desk can be put so that the light shines from behind ; it can be excused reading when its eyes grow tired and allowed to write a larger script. These may appear to be small matters but they are of great importance.

There is another question about which a word may be said at this stage, but it is so important that more will have to be written in the concluding section of this report.

It is the question as to whether or not there is a special psychology of blindness. Some people say that only a blind man can answer

his question but that is obviously wrong, for a man born blind does not know the world of the sighted. On the other hand it is equally clear that a sighted person can never fully enter into the world of the blind. Those who have grown up with sight and become blind will help, but even they cannot know the thoughts and reactions of those who from the day of birth have never seen. Already much has been written on the subject both by sighted and by blind people, and there is doubtless more to come. This much seems clear already—that a child born blind is in many ways different in his reactions, impulses and thoughts from those who have sight. Left to itself a blind child becomes quickly full of fear; feels out for more than the usual amount of assistance from others, and is particularly responsive to affection. For its own sake these tendencies must be rightly directed, and at the same time every appearance of harshness must be avoided by those who would help. What is needed is complete co-operation between parents, teachers, doctors and other blind people so that we may learn more and more how to help the blind to complete normality of life. We are now ready to begin.

SECTION 2.—BLIND BABY.

Readers of the novel "John Halifax, Gentleman," will remember the pathetic chapters in which John and Ursula Halifax discover that their new-born baby is blind. It must indeed be a terrible shock to parents when they realise this fact.

Fortunately blindness is of such a nature that it is immediately obvious in almost every case. The first reaction on the part of parents is a great overflow of love and pity for their little blind baby, and who can blame them? But if they are wise parents they will begin from the very beginning to hold themselves in check and think only of the child who must be helped, so far as is humanly possible, to forget that it is different from other children.

Foolish parents who give way to their impulse of pity usually begin by spoiling the child, then neglecting it, and in the end turning it to other people, such as a school, to deal with when bad habits are already set in a manner that is bound to affect the whole life of the blind child.

In many countries a great deal is done to help parents with their blind baby, and they must not be shy in seeking help from child welfare clinics, societies for the blind, and others whose experience will be of great value in teaching them how to avoid mistakes, and

to make use of every opportunity in the upbringing of their child. Doctors and nurses who come into contact with parents of blind children should take trouble to see that such help is obtained. It will be easier in those countries where there is compulsory registration of the blind.

The early months of any child are the shut-in period of its life. A sighted child begins from the first day to receive unconscious stimuli from everything around it.

Size, distance, shape, colour and many other things are making their mark on the baby mind before ever it appears to have a conscious realisation of the world into which it has come. The blind baby loses much of this, for it only knows a world which it can touch or which touches it, and in which there are all sorts of sounds.

It is therefore obvious that the two faculties of touch and hearing are the ones which will exercise the greatest influence in life.

It has been stated in many books that at about five months begins the grasping period when an ordinary child strives to get hold of everything it sees. There must be some valuable formative influence in such efforts for this instinct to be so universal in babies ; something will therefore be lost to the blind child unless objects are put within its reach which it can seize and play with. Here will begin the task which the parents will have through all the years of training, namely, that of knowing just how far to help the blind child and how far to leave it to make its own discoveries.

If left entirely to itself a blind child quickly wearies of feeling round and finding nothing, and so begins an attitude of passivity which will be very hard to combat when the child is older.

The next stage is when walking and talking begin. With every child the development of language is supremely important because with it goes the growth of self expression.

With a blind child much more is involved, because as it learns to talk it also learns to listen. Listening will be the only way to estimate many things in the realm of space, and also a means for recognising objects outside its reach.

Trouble must be taken to begin simple rhythm at a very early age, and when a noise is heard the child should be asked "What is that ?" Every parent knows that any child must be guided and encouraged in the development of speech, and a blind child is no exception to this rule, in fact it needs more stimulation because it cannot see those that are listening to it. When speaking to a blind child it is often good to touch it slightly, and always to address it by name—remember a blind child never receives the help of a speaker's facial expressions ; tone of voice or a touch is all that can take its place.

Walking. Alas, how often do parents bring a blind child of seven or eight years of age to school without the child being able to walk with any degree of freedom. It cannot be too strongly insisted that a blind infant must be encouraged to walk at the normal age for this is the basis of independence in after life. It is true that more than ordinary care and trouble will be needed but the chief thing to remember is that a blind child should never be discouraged from trying to walk, parents and others in the house must be the ones to exercise caution and see that nothing is left lying about which is likely to cause it to fall.

The way in which the blind child walks must also be carefully watched—every teacher of the blind knows how hard it is constantly to be correcting blind children who walk badly ; they cannot understand why so much trouble is taken over what they look like, but if they are taught from the earliest days there will be no difficulty.

All these things are especially important from the second year onwards. Again we must remember how much a blind child lacks in ordinary stimuli, not only picture books mean nothing to it but also childish games like building blocks are of little value because a blind child has no conception of what a building looks like. Other stimuli must be provided. The hand must be used to develop memory, attention, will, intelligence. The hands of a blind child must be allowed to feel over everything that is within reach of its size, but it must not end there, feeling must be followed by reproduction in clay, sand or anything else that is suitable. Here again comes the importance of parents knowing just where to help, the child should be left to itself up to a certain point but never too long ; loneliness and silence are two things hateful to the blind, and in children they begin that terrible fear of the unknown which is often so hard to correct in later years.

We now come to the question of schooling which must claim our attention in the next paragraph. First of all there is one question of importance which is often asked.

How far is it right to have special homes for blind babies ? In England, Belgium and other countries there are such homes which are very successful. In America there is a tendency to say that blind children should be kept amongst sighted children as long and as much as possible. Whilst there is a good deal of truth in this we cannot ignore the fact that little children do not understand in the same way as grown up people, a blind child amongst sighted children is apt to be neglected by them. The real answer to this question depends upon the home conditions of the children concerned. Blind children of ignorant or careless parents will certainly gain if they are able to go to a home such as a "Sunshine Home"

in England. But where the family conditions are normal it is cruelty to take a child away from those who can surround it with balanced love and devotion.

SECTION 3.—THE PROBLEM OF SCHOOL.

Throughout the last section we thought in terms of parents and a totally blind child, but it must be borne in mind that there are some children with a certain amount of sight who will still be considered as blind for all practical purposes in life. Most of what we have written in the last section will apply also to these children, although not in every detail. So as the child grows to the age when parents begin to think about schooling, the first question that will arise is whether the child should go to a school for the blind or some other school. This can only be decided after consulting with local educational authorities because there are different standards of blindness in different countries.

Some authorities insist on a very definite vision test, only admitting as blind those who fall below a certain percentage of normal vision. In South Africa, and one or two other countries the standard is not so precise, blindness being covered by a general negative test—that is “A child shall be considered blind if unable to read ordinary printed school books.”

In ordinary circumstances there is much to be thought of and talked over before parents can decide which is the best type of school to which they can send their child. Parents of blind children will find this a particularly difficult problem. By the time their child is four years old most parents will have discovered how difficult it is for them to do all that they would like to do, and yet the thought of sending the much loved, handicapped little one away from home seems too terrible to contemplate. Those who have money may employ the services of a governess in the home for kindergarten work, but such opportunities are for a very few. In some countries there are kindergarten classes attached to schools for the blind; in some places such classes are connected with sighted schools as day classes, whilst there are in the world a few special kindergarten schools for blind children. In weighing up the reasons for and against sending a little blind child to a kindergarten school, parents must remember the purpose of education: it is to enable the blind child to overcome the difficulties of its handicap, and finally take its place in a world of sighted people in such a manner that they will never need to make allowances for its blindness.

This is a very great task requiring years of patient perseverance on the part of child, teacher and parents, all working in the closest co-operation.

It may well be argued that the earlier the task is begun the better will be the final result, on the other hand it must be remembered that the home is the God-given, natural, and social sphere in which a child should grow. The finest school can never really take the place of a good home, so that it is doubtful if it is wise to send a blind child away from its home to school at the age of four, although a few hours daily attendance at a near-by school would be a great help; unfortunately it is only in very large cities that such facilities can be provided.

This does not mean that parents should postpone thinking about the education of their blind child until it is six or seven years old; at the latest they should be thinking about it in its fourth year, and, if possible, visit one or two schools and then decide to which it shall be sent. As soon as this decision is made some advice and help might be obtained by writing to the school principal, and the prospect of going to school could be brought into conversation with the child as something to be looked forward to.

If this is done the actual beginning of school life will be easier for all.

The responsibility of finally settling when school shall begin is taken from parents in countries where there is compulsory education for the blind. Unfortunately there are still some countries in which this does not exist, so that it cannot be too strongly urged that for the average blind child every day after its sixth birthday which it spends out of school is so much precious time lost.

Still there is the difficult question as to which type of school is best for blind children. It is true that for most parents the difficulty of deciding this is restricted by the place where they live, the types of schools available, and the facilities offered by the educational authorities.

In South Africa the matter is simple, for there is only one school for white children, and one for others, unless parents are sufficiently well-to-do to contemplate an overseas education.

The possible types of school are three:—

(1) A residential school. Until a few years ago all schools for the blind of necessity had boarding establishments attached to them, and even to-day the majority of schools for the blind are of this type. The obvious advantages are that transport difficulties are reduced to a minimum; the children are constantly, in school and out, with people trained to help them in the fullest sense of the term.

The disadvantages of boarding schools are that children are removed for long periods from the natural circle of the home, and are almost entirely associated with other blind children and so do not learn to adapt themselves to living amongst sighted people. It will be shown later that this latter disadvantage can to a large extent be mitigated.

(2) Day Schools. Whilst these are to be found in some countries they are not regarded with favour by the majority of educationalists. In addition to the difficulty of transport there is the fact that in most cities there is only a small group of blind children, and in a school of twenty or thirty classification according to ability is much more difficult than in a large residential school of two or three hundred. There is also the fact that out of a dozen or twenty children at least half will come from homes in which they will receive little attention, so that training in the habits of daily life is almost impossible.

(3) Braille classes attached to ordinary schools.

In one or two American cities, and in some places in Europe, the conviction that a blind child must be taught from the beginning to adapt itself to life amongst sighted people is so strong that they have abandoned the idea of special schools, and have a class attached to one of the public schools in which Braille is taught, also arithmetic and other subjects which require special apparatus. Singing, all subjects that can be learnt orally, and games are taken with the sighted children. It may be true that specially intelligent blind children will profit considerably by being in such a class, but there is a great danger that others will fall behind, because it is hardly to be expected that the average teacher will have time to give to slow blind children in the class.

There is also the fact that blind children thus educated receive little or no vocational training.

A final consideration which must be kept in mind by the parents of a blind child is that the course of training must of necessity be long, for much ground has to be covered.

A child going to school at six should look forward to at least twelve years of education, of these the first six are so important that we will now pay a visit to a school.

SECTION 4.—A VISIT TO A SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND.

In days gone by good people who were concerned for the welfare of the blind were limited both by the knowledge of the time, and the financial difficulties which always attend new ventures. In many cases they tried to economise by undertaking more than one type of work in the same building ; thus it is we sometimes find schools for the blind combined with schools for the deaf. This is now recognised as unfortunate, for the needs of the two types of handicapped children are completely different. Wherever possible attempts have been made to secure buildings for the blind which are entirely separate from buildings used for any other purpose.

The first thing that will strike a visitor entering a modern, well equipped school for the blind is that the buildings have been very carefully grouped in such a way that the children can move about freely without any chance of losing themselves. Generally the plant consists of central buildings containing assembly hall, class rooms and sometimes a gymnasium. On either side of these buildings, and connected by passages, will be found the hostel for boys and girls respectively. Few schools have been able to afford what is known as the cottage system ; but it is recognised that the smaller the dormitories the easier it is to make them homelike. At the back of this group of buildings, and again connected by well-defined passages will be the various trade shops.

The next thing that will be noticed by the visitor, is that there seem to be a large number of sighted people about.

This is due to the fact that the staff of a school for the blind must always be much larger than the staff of an ordinary school of the same numbers. In addition to trained class teachers there must be a number of trained instructors in the various vocational departments. The matter of training teachers, and instructors, of the blind is one that has received a great deal of attention during recent years.

As with sighted children so with blind, the first few years are of very great importance. We no longer think of schooling merely in terms of so much bookwork, but rather as the years in which the true personality of each individual is released, and enabled to grow both for usefulness and happiness wherever the person may be. With a tiny blind child the outstanding need at the beginning is to develop memory, imagination, hand-work, and easy co-ordination between mind and body, and all this must be done as far as possible without the child realising what is happening to it. The first stages include counting up to ten with big beads on strings, and other things not easily lost, by which there may be unconscious addition. Lan-

guage, it is now admitted, comes before writing, so that nursery rhymes and stories will be used freely. These may be set to simple music, and so a sense of rhythm will also be awakened. Braille writing begins with pegs in a board, at first large, then smaller, gradually advancing to standard Braille writing. Reading is taken in similar stages. Elementary hand-work is most important even with the smallest children, for subtle, sensitive hands will be as eyes to the blind ; plasticine will be used and threading beads of a large kind.

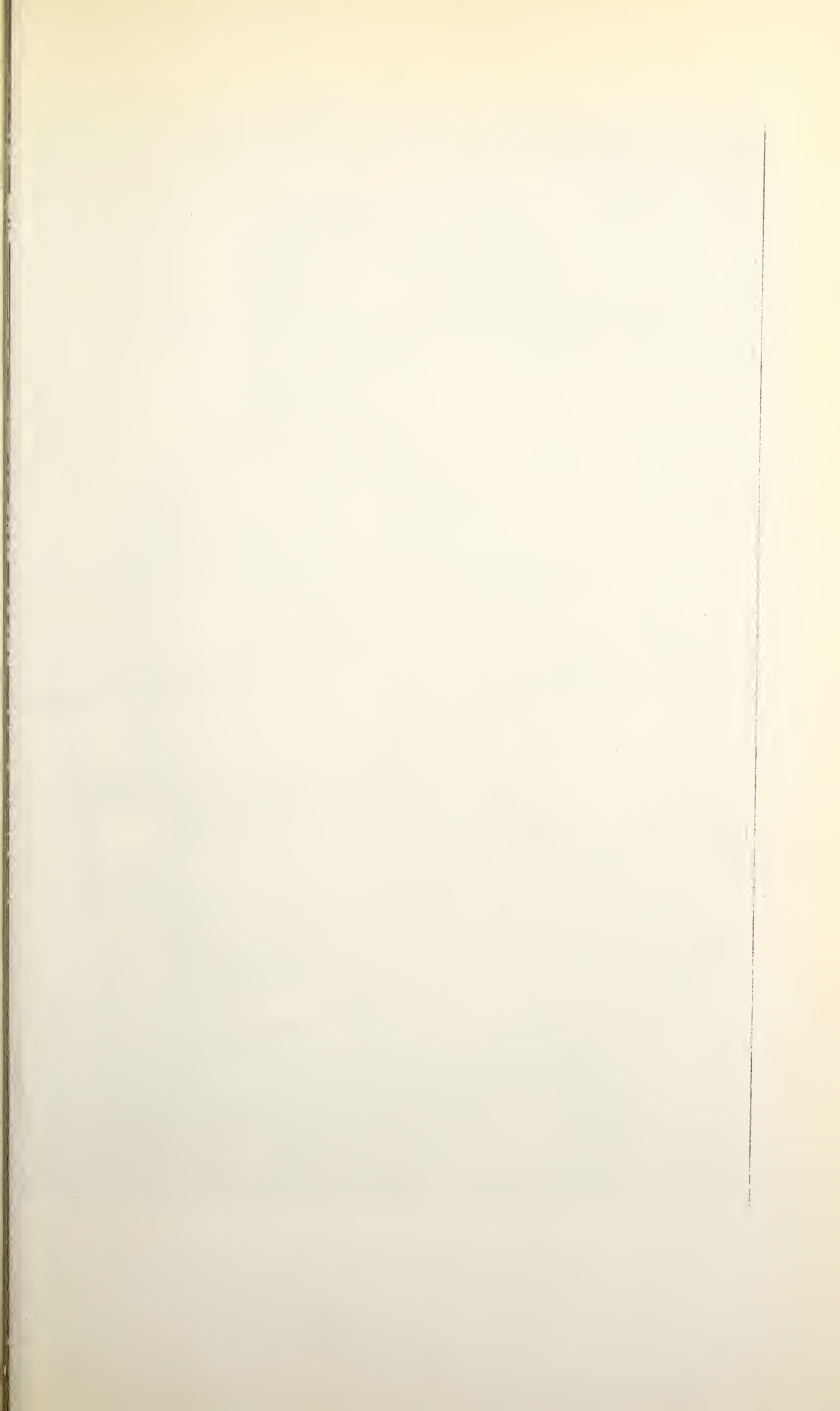
From the primary stages the child passes on into the first standards where it learns simple reading, writing and arithmetic. The average blind child should be able to cover as much ground in each standard as a sighted child would do, the difficulty is not in the children but in the fact that much more individual attention is required than in a sighted school ; the best of teachers can only do a certain amount in a given time so that it is supremely important that the classes should be small. At this stage great care must be taken to make sure that the children have correct concepts of the things they read about and hear in conversation. Lessons will have to be given on familiar subjects such as the house, church, trees, flowers, animals and so on—in most cases models will be used for the children to feel, the idea of size being conveyed by comparison with something they are familiar with. To help in this work it is essential that each school should have a well-equipped museum, if possible containing stuffed specimens of birds and animals which are common in the neighbourhood. Here is a delightful piece of work for sighted friends of the school, they can always bear the museum in mind and send little gifts from time to time to enrich it.

Many hours of the teacher's time will be saved if there is a well-equipped museum to draw from.

It will be noticed that in these classes considerable attention has to be given to health talks including the value of posture, cleanliness and tidiness ; for these are matters which do not come easily to blind children who do not see what they look like when their clothes are dirty, and so on.

We now pass on to the fifth and sixth standards which, for some blind children, will be as far as they are able to go in school work.

In addition to the subjects already mentioned the children will now learn all other subjects that are required in elementary education ; it is safe to say that with the aid of suitable equipment the blind can learn as much and as quickly as their sighted friends. The suitable equipment need not be confined to those things that are expensive, such as a specially made globe with raised continents





A pupil of the Athlone School for the Blind working at arithmetic with special apparatus.

correctly marked with mountains, rivers, etc. (although every school should have one such globe at least), but also there are many things that an ingenious teacher will think of, and even get the blind children to make, thereby learning in the making. In one American school I remember seeing a particularly well-informed geography class making their own maps in trays filled with sand and covered with hessian ; the outline of the land being made with pins, the rivers of silver paper and the mountains of clay.

History, and other subjects that are taught mainly orally, can be made of greater interest if converted into a game, e.g., fifty questions are Brailled on to slips of paper and given out to a class of ten, each child receiving five. When the class begins, the first child asks the top question of his five, and the first who shouts out the correct answer receives the slip which is placed on one side. This goes on until all the slips are finished and the child that has the largest number of slips at the end is declared the winner. Imagination on the part of the teacher plays a large part in matters such as this, although it must be admitted that the preparation is also an extra tax on time.

Algebra and Geometry seldom come in these standards, so need not be referred to here, except to say that ways have been discovered by which the most intricate problem can be made clear to a blind person.

In these standards time will be given to the first stages in vocational work, including—for those desiring instruction—gardening and carpentry. Music will by now have a regular place in the curriculum. These subjects will have to be referred to again later.

We trust that this brief outline of the daily work in a school for the blind will convince our imaginary visitors that the day has indeed passed when the blind are to be pitied. If only they are sent to school at an age sufficiently young, and given average intelligence, they should be able to enter into a world as full of interest and value as that of a sighted child of the same age.

Before leaving this part of the school a brief visit should be paid to the hostels to see the domestic arrangements provided, although they offer very little in difference from the residential quarters of any boarding school, this much excepted, that the people in charge, like the teachers in the school, must be people who have learned the secret of remembering always the physical limitations of the blind in such a way that the blind themselves forget them. It must be admitted that these people are rare, very largely because the gift of entering fully into the lives of others is one that few possess.

In the living rooms as much attention should be paid to light,

colour and decorations as if the children could see, because these things are necessary to life, and it means a lot to blind children to hear people commenting upon the beauty of scenes and rooms. Care will be taken to encourage the children to attend to their own needs in every possible detail ; at the same time it will be remembered that it takes but a few moments to explain such a problem as how to do up a boot lace, whereas left to itself the child will learn only with many tears and much anxiety.

The hours spent out of school are of great importance, and here the blind do, perhaps, need more assistance than the sighted. As in every other department we must remember that no two children are alike, some will need more attention than others. Indoor games will give as much happiness to the blind as to the sighted : it is possible to obtain draughts, chess, dominoes, cards and many other games especially made for hands to feel instead of eyes to see. Reading will be popular with some, and the wireless now offers a wide range of pleasure.

It is now time to look at the life of a blind child as it widens out into higher education, or vocational training, but before doing so it will be well to rest for a few minutes—for we are doubtless tired with walking—and over a cup of tea talk about two subjects that affect the whole of life in a school for the blind, from the primary department to the highest standards. They are the spiritual and physical well being of blind children.

SECTION 5.—THE SPIRITUAL LIFE OF THE BLIND.

We must get away from the idea that spiritual life is the same thing as religious life, unless we admit—as we ought to do—that religion is a matter that is concerned with the whole of life. For the purposes of our present discussion, the spiritual life of the blind means that side of life which is not physical ; it covers mental, moral, aesthetic and devotional life. Beginning with the last we find we have little to say, for it is one thing for which the blind may be thankful that their handicap does not interfere with their personal contact with GOD.

But even here there are a few details which it is well to bear in mind. There is the external, fellowship side to religion as well as the inner, direct intercourse between the soul of each person and that ultimate reality we call GOD. The majority of sighted people are deeply influenced by the religious services they attend, by the ritual, be it simple or elaborate, and by the very building itself in

which they worship. This is also true of the blind who are very sensitive to impressions from without.

It will be readily conceived that religious exercises can become wearisome to a blind child if linked in his mind with buildings that are unfamiliar and full of voices coming from various directions. for this reason ministers and Sunday school teachers ought to take extra trouble to go round the church buildings, allowing the blind children to feel the relative positions of the furniture, and explaining to them their use.

The personal habits of blind people in their daily lives will vary as much as with sighted people. When they first come to school the habits of blind children are largely the result of their home conditions, as are also the likes and dislikes, their alertness or passivity, whichever the case may be. In many schools it is the practice to make a record sheet of each child on admission, noting its peculiarities and its natural tendencies so far as they can be observed. Notes will be made on this sheet by the teachers as the child progresses from standard to standard, and they will prove of great value. It is true that not so much work has been done through intelligence tests amongst blind children as amongst sighted, but the progress is not inconsiderable; sufficient information as to the characteristics of different types of blind children is now available in book form, and can be a great help to teachers and parents who will take the trouble to study those under their charge.

The emotional life of the blind requires very sympathetic handling and careful guiding. Their natural tendency to handle freely is in itself a stimulus during the years of adolescence. Carefully given lessons in biology must begin at an early age, and when the time comes natural curiosity must be answered frankly and honestly.

Most blind people are naturally friendly, and herein there is both danger and a great opportunity to help them.

We must repeat, as we have said before, that those who would be friends to blind children must learn just how much freedom to give them, and yet teach them the difficult lesson of self control.

SECTION 6.—PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT.

That the blind need to have strong and healthy bodies is self evident, because all right-minded people desire this gift. But it is not always realised that strong physique does not come easily to blind children; this is partly owing to their natural difficulty

in moving about freely and quickly, unless they have been encouraged to do so. Left to themselves blind children will sit about very much, walk slowly, and seldom if ever try to run or jump.

When they have learned that they can do these things, they enjoy as much as any one the glow that comes after violent exercise. That this can be is evidenced in any modern school for the blind. In the primary department the children will learn, under supervision, to jump and skip, and to play games that require quick bodily movement.

In the playground there should be suitable apparatus, such as a swing, a sea-saw, rocking boats and if possible a Jungle Gym.—This last mentioned apparatus is very popular in America, it consists of a large frame constructed of wooden poles with other poles inside going in various directions somewhat in the nature of a maze; the uprights and cross poles are sufficiently far apart that the children must stretch their arms to climb in it, and yet they are so made that the child cannot fall so as to hurt itself.

For the older children there is a wider range of possible games. Running and jumping are much enjoyed by the blind if they have some simple apparatus to keep them straight; for running, wires are sometimes stretched between poles with a ring on them which the blind runner grasps, although some prefer to have no apparatus, but that someone should stand at the end of the course ringing a bell to guide the runners.

Long jumping is fairly easy, also putting the weight, but high jumping is impossible for the blind.

An indoor gymnasium is an essential feature in any large school for the blind. With sighted supervision ordinary physical jerks, rope climbing, parallel bars and other forms of exercise are not only possible but much enjoyed by the blind. I have also seen some very fine wrestling between blind boys. Swimming is one of the easiest and best of all forms of exercise for the blind, and every school which can afford it should have a swimming bath. Dancing also is exercise as well as pleasure for the blind, and it will be found that small blind children are very fond of country dancing.

For recreation scouting and guiding (or similar organisations) are most useful. Not only does it help to develop the individual gifts of the children, but it brings them into touch with a fellowship which exists beyond the walls of the school. In many countries there are very successful troops of scouts and guides who associate regularly with sighted troops. It may be noted that it is quite a good thing for blind school children to compete with the sighted at running and gymnastic exercises, also in swimming competitions.

Whilst all these forms of exercise in one way or another are desirable for all blind children, it will be found in all schools that there are a certain number whose blindness is combined with other physical defects, including speech defects. It is not easy for teachers who are burdened with a heavy programme of work to give all the attention that is needed in such cases, and yet they should try to do all that they can. With such children the essential thing is to begin early. A few minutes exercise every day, increasing as time goes on may succeed in correcting slovenly, drooping shoulders, head that hangs forward, or even curvature of the spine. If these troubles are neglected in the first few years, it will be found almost impossible to correct them in later life.

The importance of correcting speech defects is in the fact that clear enunciation is vital for the blind; if they stammer or slur over their words, so that others cannot understand them, they are often laughed at, which complicates their nature, making them afraid to express themselves.

Of course speech defects are often the result of some psychological complex, and require much skill in handling, but advice can always be obtained. It has also to be remembered that children sometimes speak indistinctly because they have not heard correctly; children in a blind school should have their hearing tested and watched.

We are now ready to continue our visit round a school for the blind, studying especially the classes for higher education and the departments for vocational work.

SECTION 7.—THE THRESHOLD OF LIFE.

A leading school for the blind in America has for its motto "Education for life." It sets forth a high ideal, namely that school days must always be thought of as the great preparation for life, that we may fill a real place here in the world.

Whilst this is true of all schools it is especially true of schools for the blind, because a blind person has to learn not only the work he wants to do but also how to adapt himself in many ways to a world which is not always kind. So the last few years in school are of supreme importance to a blind child. There are two alternatives before him; the one is to continue what is known as higher education and so prepare for commercial or professional life; the other is to pass from the primary school into a vocational school in order to learn some trade.

We will consider the second alternative first because it is the course followed by the majority of blind children. The first thing that will be noted in a modern school for the blind is that the transition from one department to another is made as gradual as possible. It has already been noted that in the primary department elementary vocational instruction is given, so that, passing into the department where full time is spent in vocational training, the child will already have some idea of what work interests it most, and the teacher will have a very fair idea of the child's ability and intelligence. The first years in this department will probably be divided up, so that the boy or girl may acquire a working knowledge of two or three occupations; in the latter years concentration will be devoted to one trade in particular.

It is obvious that very few schools will be able to run workshops for all the various trades which the blind can do, but every school of any size should have the following trades:—

For boys—Basket and cane work; mattress making; chair seating; brush work or broom making; mat making; piano tuning and repairing;—other trades are possible if money allows and if the number of children in the school justify more; reference will be made to these later when we pay a visit to a workshop for the blind.

For Girls:—Rush and cane work; knitting, hand and machine (boys can also learn to use a knitting machine); raffia work; leather work; spinning and weaving, but it is doubtful if blind girls can do very much domestic science, although they should be encouraged and trained to do as many household duties as possible.

The secret of success in this department of the school lies very largely with the instructor. The larger the school the easier the work, for then it would be possible to have a foreman in charge of each work-shop, with a technical instructor supervising *their work*; where the school is too small to allow this, the instructor must be versatile enough to be able to teach at least three trades.

The technical instructor will also be at the service of the principal of the primary school for the elementary vocational training which has to be given to the younger children. Normally the younger children will come into the workshops to do their work for two, four, or six hours a week as the case may be. As with teachers of the blind, so also with technical instructors, a very special training is needed. A man may be a very thorough workman himself, but it does not follow that he can teach; a man may be a very good teacher of sighted children, but it does not follow that he can teach blind children. The instruction of blind children during their years of vocational training is a highly responsible work.

The number of years to be spent in the technical department will be according to ability, the age at which the child begins, and local regulations with regard to apprenticeships, as also the regulations of the educational authorities who control the school. In America it is almost universal that a normal blind child remains at school until 21, so that, assuming that the schooling begins when the child is six, it will have fifteen years, the last three of which will be spent in intensive vocational training, which includes training in a knowledge of the materials used, how to purchase, how to keep accounts, and how to dispose of one's goods—in fact everything that is needed to make the children independent workers. In England many are rather in favour of treating the blind in a similar way to the sighted, that is to say, they leave the school for the blind after their primary education and a short period of vocational training, and they pass on to a workshop for the blind to which is attached an apprenticeship department. It is difficult to say which system is best but in either case it must be impressed upon the blind that they must be patient and realise that success in their life work depends upon their ability to turn out really first-class work; if they try to set up in work for themselves when they are able to do very little, and so turn out inferior work, they will not only make it hard for themselves, but they will prejudice the public against blind workmanship.

We now turn to the high school department in which the blind children can be tested and trained for commercial and professional work. In some schools this department may be absent, for there are some teachers of the blind who are of opinion that blind pupils who wish to pass on to higher education can best obtain this by returning to a sighted school. This is a much debated matter and there is so much to be said for both views that it is impossible to discuss them in this essay; for the sake of those who are trying to get a general view of work for the blind we will imagine that there is such a department at the school we are visiting, and so will enter the class rooms.

The first thing that will claim our attention is the fact that the classes are small. This is owing to the fact that with the blind, as with the sighted, only a small percentage persevere into higher education. Moreover, there will be a good deal of personal attention needed for the blind who wish to overcome all the difficulties attendant upon their handicap when they enter fields of knowledge that require a considerable reference library, and very special mathematical, scientific and other apparatus. With regard to apparatus, it is safe to say that to-day specially constructed apparatus have been devised to enable a blind student to master most subjects, although

the higher branches of physics and natural science still present some difficulties.

The difficulty of reference libraries is still great, for the cost of producing Braille books makes it almost impossible to keep pace with the rapidly growing libraries of scientific books. The only alternative is for the blind student to employ a reader. In many cases the expense makes this impossible, although it is encouraging to note that in many places people of leisure are to be found who are ever ready to offer their services to read to a blind student.

Those who persevere as far as a University invariably find it necessary to employ a reader who can also assist in experimental work where needed. The question has been raised as to whether it would be better for the blind if, in countries with considerable population, a university for blind students existed, but it will be obvious to anyone who has passed through a university course that this would mean losing one of the most valuable things about university life, namely, intercourse with all sorts and conditions of people who are reading a great variety of subjects. It is true that in France, and some other places, it has been found an advantage to the blind to have a special training school for certain branches of professional life, notably music and massage, but this experience cannot be used to prove the value of a special university for the blind especially in face of the strong conviction amongst most educators of the blind that the purpose of education is to fit the blind person to live in a world of sighted people.

As one passes from class room to class room, watching the blind students at their work, the question naturally arises, for what are these young people preparing themselves?

The answer has been given already—either for commercial or professional life. For very many years it has been recognised that the blind are capable of filling posts in certain professional circles notably music, the Christian Ministry, Law, teaching and so on. In each of these spheres there is so much competition that the blind student must be prepared for a long struggle in order to establish himself, or herself—this means years of concentrated study.

It has not been so readily granted that commercial life presents openings for the blind, in fact it is only within recent years that blind people have considered the possibility of earning a living in this way. The chief occupations are:—stenography (by special shorthand Braille); typing, including the use of the dictaphone; telephone operating; insurance agencies; and the running of independent stands for the sale of goods. In preparing for any of these occupations it is essential that the blind student should be given as much practical experience as possible whilst still training; this rather

points to the value of commercial training in a school for the blind where opportunities of practical experience will arise in the school itself, rather than to the conclusion that the blind student should study in a commercial school where it will be very difficult for him to do more than follow through the curriculum.

In some American schools very considerable attention is given to this department, and special arrangements are made with business firms to enable the students to get experience whilst still in school, and during the vacations.

In all this work, whether the training be for professional, commercial, or trade work, it will be realised how very important it is to keep record sheets of the children's attainments in the primary department of the school.

So we see that modern education in most countries is able to open up to the blind the great majority of occupations that present themselves for one on the threshold of life to consider.

We will now leave school behind, and endeavour to study the hopes, disappointments, difficulties and successes of the blind when they are out in the maelstrom of life.

SECTION 8.—LIFE AND WORK.

"Even if materially successful, work is only satisfactory if it fills, at least partially, the following three requirements: First, the characteristic individuality of the human being must find its expression in his work; it must provide an outlet for his creative tendencies. Secondly, the pupil's need of appreciation by others must be satisfied in some way; a human being cannot exist without being esteemed by society, and in modern society success in his work wins this esteem for the blind. Finally, satisfactory work offers, especially to persons of a finer mental structure, a definite excuse for living; it is necessary for such persons to believe that their work helps society and mankind in general."

These noble words, written by a German blind man, express an ideal which many people find it hard to realise. A right distribution of work is one of the problems which confronts 20th century civilisation.

And yet it remains true, as Mr. Steinberg reminds us, that successful work provides man with an excuse for living. The tragedy which confronts the many millions of unemployed in the world to-day is not only that they are unable to earn their own bread, but also that they are forced to the terrible realisation that the world can do without them. Blind people are no exception in this matter, an unemployed blind man feels as does a sighted man. The difference between the sighted and the blind is that the acute problem of unemployment is comparatively recent with sighted people, but with the blind it has been the question of the ages. In bygone

days it was considered that the physical infirmity of blindness made a man incapable of working, he had nothing to do but beg.

For more than a hundred years now this idea has been refuted by the labours of many who have proved beyond question that blind people are capable of working ; in some trades they can even produce better workmanship than sighted people. But the difficulties have not all been overcome when a blind child learns to work, such problems as purchasing raw material, sale of articles, and so on arise as soon as the child passes out into the world. For this reason workers amongst the blind in the past have organised institutions of various kinds, many of them residential. It was the line of least resistance in days when everything had to be done by philanthropic societies. In most countries to-day a better condition of affairs exists : schools are assisted by the government, old established institutions profit by endowments, and very often there is a considerable measure of state aid. All this means that much more thought and attention can be given to the blind.

At the public reception given to delegates attending the World Conference held in New York City, April, 1931, one of the speakers was a blind man, a United States Senator, the Honourable T. P. Gore, LL.D. ; in the course of his address he said, obviously moved by deep emotion, " Whatever you do, do not institutionalise the blind."

Without doubt every one present, and there were people from 31 countries, felt with the blind Senator who was really pleading for a reasonable, rational attitude towards the blind, not as peculiar members of society, but as normal human beings. It is not always easy to live up to our ideals, but we must be careful not to forget them. In whatever way we strive to help the blind, whether by institutions or otherwise, certain factors must not be forgotten.

The fullest opportunity should be secured for every blind person to develop in his or her individual way ; blind people gifted with intelligence should not be held back by undue association with those who are of less general ability ; where institutions are necessary they should be made as homelike, and human, as possible.

We come then to this position—when the blind young man, or young woman, leaves school there are before them two alternatives.

(a) A life of complete independence so far as earning their own living is concerned. Very few will attain to this and those who do will be the ones who have decided to enter commercial or professional life.

In some small details they will also require assistance, but only of such a nature as can be supplied by their own family, or arranged

for and paid as part of their professional work. Reference has already been made to the different professions in which blind people can earn a living ; it is now only necessary to say that almost every country has examples of blind people who have gone far, and become public people in the Church, Parliament, Law, Music and other professions. Naturally the struggle will be in the early days, but it will be a similar struggle to that which confronts every professional man or woman, and the means of succeeding will be for the blind very much the same as for the sighted with these two exceptions :—

(1) Blind professional people in their early days will have the added expense of requiring a paid assistant, especially if their work involves much travelling ; (2) the other added difficulty for the blind is the scarcity and expense of Braille literature on technical subjects. An effort is being made to reduce this difficulty by international co-operation.

Reference must be made to music as a profession.

At one time a large number of blind people were able to earn a substantial living as musicians, and by teaching music, but to-day the blind suffer with the sighted in the fact that wireless, and other forms of mechanical entertainment, have reduced the need for orchestras ; also, fewer people learn to play the piano than formerly. However, music still remains an open profession to the blind, but it is more than ever necessary that they should be very thoroughly trained if they are to compete successfully under modern conditions.

With regard to commercial life, the blind are capable of filling many places. Where difficulty exists, it is not generally in the capacity of the blind but the scepticism of the general public. It is surprisingly difficult to make business men realise that blind people often make very successful typists, stenographers, telephone operators and business agents.

Here again the possibilities of success for a blind person are largely determined by the amount of training received.

(b) Life that is assisted in some way or other, the onus being on those who organise the help to do it in such a way that self respect, independence and general usefulness may be developed to the fullest possible extent. The majority of blind children leaving school will come into this class.

It will be found that there are three types of blind people who need some measure of assistance. First, those who are capable workmen and wish to work in their own homes ; second, those who wish to live in their own homes but need to come to workshops in order that they may work under a foreman ; third, those

whose workmanship is not very good and for whom life in an institution is necessary.

In large cities all three types can be helped by one organisation, and when this is possible it is obviously the most economical method of administration. But in countries with no large cities the situation is more difficult. It is necessary, so far as possible, to avoid many small organisations, each one with its heavy overhead expenses ; at the same time centralised work in countries with a scattered population tends to weaken the link between the blind people and their own homes and friends. We must give some consideration to these three types of blind people. We will do so in the reverse order to that which is mentioned above.

(I). INSTITUTIONS FOR THE UNEMPLOYABLE BLIND.

In every country there are a number of blind people who have not much earning capacity, besides some who are almost incapable of doing any work.

As may be expected the majority of these come from homes where little or no help can be given them, the community must support them in some way. The problem is to discover the most humane, and at the same time economical method ; an institution would appear the only way. At the same time the institution must be organised so as to assist the blind people to be as productive as possible. Such people can only work under a foreman and it will be most essential that he should be sighted, as there will probably be a good deal of bad work to be corrected before their products can be sold. The question which exercises many people is—whether such an institution should be attached to a school, or workshops where capable workmen are employed, or whether it should be an entirely separate organisation ? In densely populated countries it may be possible to have an institution into which all slow blind workers can be drafted from different parts of the country ; but in most countries this is quite impossible owing to the expense involved. The alternative is that they should be retained at the school where they were educated, or provided for in residential quarters at some workshop for the blind. The former is probably the best, as it is almost certain that such blind people will not be very generally intelligent, so that the simplest, and kindest thing is to keep them in surroundings with which they have become familiar during childhood.

Of course, if such a department is started in connection with a school for the blind, it will have to be kept entirely separate, so that those who are still children may not be retarded by contact with those who are older and not very capable.

(2). WORKSHOPS FOR THOSE WHO LIVE IN THEIR OWN HOMES.

There is little to say about these workshops for they are very similar to an ordinary factory where sighted people work. The blind people will come and go each day, do their day's work in that trade for which they have shown aptitude, and so live as near as possible a normal life. The difference between a workshop for the blind and an ordinary factory lies in the fact that factories only employ those whose work justifies the pay they receive, but such a rigid rule cannot be kept in a workshop for the blind. Comparatively few blind workmen can work fast enough to earn enough to keep themselves, a wife and family.

In countries where the state subsidises work for the blind each one will receive a minimum wage, but in countries where no such provision is made many of the workmen will have to have their wages supplemented out of funds provided by the public. For this reason the organisation and management of workshops for the blind is a matter of very great importance, and those who desire to make a careful study of this should try to secure a copy of the lectures delivered at the "World Conference" by Messrs. Starling and George Danby; the first is entitled "Blind Workshop occupations," the second "Workshop management." There is just one point in Mr. Danby's lecture which will be very difficult for most workshops to realise:—he contends that goods made by the blind should be sold in the open market, and in open competition with similar goods made by sighted people; that is to say, the purchasing public should never know if they are buying goods made by blind or sighted people. Whilst Mr. Danby is able to follow this plan in Glasgow, almost all other workshop managers use a special label stating that the goods are blind-made. So long as public funds must be used to supplement the earnings of the blind, it seems only reasonable that blind-made goods should be labelled, and there is much to be said for a distinctive label being adopted so that it may become familiar everywhere.

(3). THE BLIND WHO WORK IN THEIR OWN HOMES.

Capable blind people who can turn their hands to two or three different occupations often wish to work in their own homes. It saves the difficulty of going backwards and forwards to the workshop, and in country places it enables the blind person to remain amongst his or her own friends.

Nevertheless some measure of assistance is necessary, especially in the supply of raw material, obtaining orders, and selling goods when made.

In countries where towns are close to each other such people are known as "Home Workers," and are assisted by some central organisation, which employs the services of a travelling supervisor.

In addition to ordinary occupations which a blind person can follow, it has become increasingly popular in America, and in some European countries, to persuade hospitals, public parks, railway authorities and others to allow a blind person to run a Kiosk where newspapers, sweets, tobacco, etc., may be sold.

As already stated, the way in which these various types of people can be helped depends very largely on the system of philanthropic organisation which exists, and on the amount of state aid given.

Within recent years a move has been made in Germany to do away with the placing of blind people in special occupations, workshops of institutions. Instead they are absorbed into ordinary factories and business concerns. The system seems to be working well, and has revealed how many things there are which a blind person can do that would have been considered impossible a few years ago, including even working with complicated machinery; naturally there has to be a measure of adaptation.

We cannot close this section without referring to a very important matter, namely the rehabilitation of blinded people. When a man or woman lose their sight by sickness or accident, they are at first tempted to despair of any further usefulness. The work of bringing them to realise that life still holds much that is good is not easy, but it is work which must be undertaken by an organisation that has as its object to render assistance to all blind people. In some places it will be found best to bring these people into an institution for some time, where they will gradually learn to adapt themselves to their new conditions of life; on the other hand this may sometimes be impossible, and then someone must be employed to visit them in their own home, and teach them as much as possible. Experience proves that blind people are generally best qualified to teach those who have lost their sight, for they have knowledge and sympathy which no sighted person can cultivate; moreover the fact that they are also blind stimulates the person who is inclined to despair.

SECTION 9.—EVENTIDE.

Little now remains to be written: For many blind people the eventide of life comes, as it does for sighted people, as a time of rest and happy recollections, and of quiet looking forward to the completion of life's plan, the other side of the veil which men call death.

Those who have worked happily and well all their lives will have saved money and so prepared for their last days ; poorer people will have their scant savings supplemented by an old age pension which will enable them to spend their final years in the circle of their own friends, with the idle hours filled by reading books from a Braille library, and entertainments supplied by a wireless set, if they live in a country where all the blind are provided with wireless.

Alas, not all are in the happy condition described above. Everywhere there are blind people who have not enjoyed all the opportunities we have discussed in this essay ; probably there always will be some blind people who have not been able to do anything to provide for their old age.

So we ask what will happen to the blind when they become aged and helpless. Three things may happen :—

(1) They may be accommodated at an existing institution for the blind, and this will certainly be the kindest thing for those who have lived most of their lives in an institution. It will mean that those who administer the institution will have to set apart special rooms where the aged may be surrounded with such extra comforts as they deserve. To take them away to an unfamiliar place would be a supreme cruelty, for at the best of times few blind people like unfamiliar places.

(2) They may be provided for in a special home for the aged blind.

(3) They may become inmates of homes for aged people where all sorts and conditions are received.

The latter may be necessary for certain people if they require special nursing, or are entirely indigent ; but, where it is practicable, it is much better that there should be a special home for those blind people who have lived all their lives amongst their friends, and only in their last days need to go where they will receive more care and attention than their friends can supply. Ordinary homes for aged people are generally unwilling to take those who suffer from a physical handicap ; even if they do take them they will not understand them, and so the lot of the blind will be miserable indeed. In a special home they will be cared for by those who understand them, and so will be surrounded by love and the care that is born of sympathy. Such a home might also receive the infirm blind who are not necessarily old.

So we leave our sightless friends, having tried to show that at every stage life may be made full, and normal, until the last hours when the day breaks, the shadows flee away, and the blind who have loved and served their Saviour will see him face to face.

SECTION 10.—CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS.

Those who have followed all through this essay may feel that the ground has been completely covered, and yet there are a few matters to which it has been difficult to refer in the course of our narrative. They are :—

(1) *Guide dogs for the blind.* More than once we have stated that it is the purpose of all modern work for the blind to encourage independence. The greatest difficulty is independence of motion, but even this has been developed in some countries, notably Switzerland, Germany and America.

The idea of training dogs to guide the blind originated in Switzerland. The dogs are of a kind known as “German sheep dogs,” somewhat similar to the Alsatian wolf hound, but more amenable to training. The dogs are trained in special camps where they are taught to respond to certain commands, and to walk by the side of a person they are guiding in such a way that they lead him in and out of traffic, and yet never get in his way. There is a special harness which goes over the shoulders and round the chest of the dog, attached to it is a long handle in the shape of a hoop, the top of which is not much broader than a man’s hand so that as the blind man grasps it he feels the movement of the dog left or right by the pressure on his hand. It is necessary for the blind person who purchases one of these dogs to go and stay in the training camp for some time, so that the dog may become accustomed to the new voice in its own familiar surroundings. Anyone who has seen a blind man going in and out of the traffic in Berlin, or any other place, is amazed to see how excellent these dogs are, and there appears to be no ground for the assertion that is made in some quarters that the occupation is unnatural, and therefore cruel, to the dog ; a wonderful friendship grows up between master and dog.

(2) *Badges for the blind.* In some countries it is the practice for blind people to wear an armlet of some bright colour such as yellow, on which there is a distinctive mark ; it is contended that such badges are known by the general public, who therefore give place to the blind person walking about. Some educated blind people feel sensitive about their disability, and do not like to wear such a badge ; they therefore carry a metal disc, of the same colour and pattern, which is on a short handle ; when in a crowded place, or desiring to cross the road unaccompanied, they hold it up so that it may be easily seen, but at other times they carry it in their pocket. Such badges are used in Austria, Germany and Switzerland. In

some countries there is a growing practise of the blind carrying a white stick.

(3) *Uniform Braille, especially music notation.* It is unfortunate that there is still not complete uniformity of Braille notation throughout the world. Spanish-speaking countries are moving rapidly towards uniformity, but there is still considerable difference of opinion between the two great English speaking countries, Great Britain and America.

This is a matter which shows the importance of an international bureau for all matters connected with the blind.

(4) *Always "For" never "With."* Dr. Gabler Knibbe, a prominent German blind man, when writing an account of the international conference held in New York City, 1931, concluded with a paragraph under this title. His argument was that there is still too much which savours of regarding the blind as a section of the community apart, who need to be looked after by sighted people. It is possibly true that this attitude has predominated in the past, but everywhere there are signs that educated blind people can help, and that their assistance is very much appreciated. It would be little short of tragedy if a sort of racial feeling developed—as much as to say that only the blind understand the blind, and that therefore the educated blind should control all work for their less fortunate brethren.

We are confident that such a feeling does not exist anywhere ; at the same time it is right to urge that the co-operation of educated blind people with sighted workers amongst the blind is essential.

So we conclude : Think of the blind ; work with the blind, and care for them in such a way that they may no longer be considered a people to be pitied, and may themselves react normally to the life around them, in which they may make a great contribution ; and yet remember, after all is said and done, the blind will still be blind.

BLIND

APPENDIX I.

SOCIETIES FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS.

It is doubtful if there is any other branch of social welfare work which has developed so rapidly and achieved so much within recent years as the work of preventing blindness.

In almost every important country of the world there is to be found a society, or some organisations, for the prevention of blindness; the use of prophylactics being compulsory by law in many countries.

In South Africa considerable advance has been made the last few years, doubtless owing to the energetic work of the National Council for the Blind and child welfare societies.

In addition to the use of a solution of silver nitrate in the eyes of new-born babies—to prevent ophthalmia neonatorum—there is the fact that the majority of diseases which cause, or can cause, blindness are preventable, or respond to treatment if dealt with in the early stages. These diseases include small-pox, diphtheria, trachoma, syphilis, glaucoma, as well as eruptive fevers such as scarlet fever and measles. Traumatism of the eye, caused by rubbing with a dirty hand or handkerchief, can also cause blindness. There is also blindness caused by accidents, many of which are preventable.

A good deal of preventive work is carried on in hospitals and clinics and much useful propaganda is carried out by child welfare organizations, local and national societies for the blind and private enterprise.

Still it remains difficult for these organizations to do more than handle cases which come to their notice.

So important is the work, and so capable of saving many from blindness, that there is need for a society which exists for this specific work. It is greatly to be hoped that such a society will soon be started in South Africa, in the meanwhile the National Council for the Blind would do well to imitate many of the State Commissions which exist in parts of America, and set apart a special department for the prevention of blindness.

The obvious advantage of this work being done by special agencies, instead of being merely an item in the programme of some organization, is that attention is focussed on this particular subject.

The main work of a society for the prevention of blindness is propaganda, working through every possible channel, especially Welfare Centres and Schools.

By means of lectures, diagrams and demonstrations the public must be instructed as to the dangers of diseases such as those mentioned above, as well as being informed as to the vital importance of general hygiene, and the need to exercise every caution when dealing with the blind.

Another important item in the programme of a special society will be the following up of cases discovered where preventive measures have been applied. Too often much good work is lost by individuals failing to persevere with the treatment. This will have to be done by co-operation with hospitals, schools, and welfare associations.

It is difficult to imagine any work which brings fuller satisfaction to those engaged in it for it has been abundantly proved that wherever there are active societies for the Prevention of Blindness the incidence of this terrible handicap in the community decreases to an amazing extent.

APPENDIX II.

NOTIFIABLE DISEASES.

It is often only when tragedy visits a people that they awake to the dangers that surround them. To some extent this is what happened in South Africa—it was not until the terrible influenza epidemic of 1918 that public attention was aroused to the need for stringent laws with regard to certain diseases. The result was that the Public Health Acts of South Africa were passed in quick succession.

It is now safe to say that the provisions made to guard the health of the community are very complete, considerable discretion being given to the Minister for Public Health to proclaim measures needed to meet special situations.

Any one wishing to study the health acts of the Union cannot do better than secure a copy of "The Public Health and Housing Acts of the Union of South Africa," it is written by Nathan and Thornton, and contains full notes and comments. The Publishers are the Central News Agency.

The act specifies certain diseases as notifiable, and gives the minister power to make any disease notifiable at any time, or in any given area, if it is considered to be in the interests of the public health.

The notifiable diseases include all that are likely to result in blindness and include also ophthalmia neonatorum, all forms of infectious venereal disease are also notifiable and patients suffering from them are bound to continue the treatment prescribed, either at a clinic or in a hospital, or they are considered guilty of an offence.

Provided that it is possible to see that all these provisions are carried out great advance should be made in the prevention of blindness; at present there seems to be some difficulties, especially in carrying out the necessary treatment for venereal diseases, owing to the fact that the cost cannot generally be borne by the persons concerned, and local authorities are frequently unwilling to incur the heavy expense of maintaining a patient in a hospital or a long period generally necessary to effect a cure.

APPENDIX III.

SIGHT SAVING.

Towards the end of 1932 the S.A. National Council for the Blind issued two important pamphlets; one was written by Dr. L. van Schalkwijk and is called "The problem of the partially-sighted child."

These pamphlets, in both languages, can be obtained from P.O. Box 217 Cape Town.

The National Council have succeeded in convincing the authorities in two provinces (the Cape and Transvaal) that special classes for the saving of sight are a vital need in every community, although up to the present not a single class has been started. It is unnecessary to consider at greater length the nature, or need of these classes, sufficient information can be obtained from the Council's office.

It is well, however to draw attention to three facts:—

- (1) The work of saving sight is the right work of a society for the blind, unless a society exists for the special purpose of sight saving. When child welfare societies, or other bodies, have established that a child, or person, suffering from such defective vision as to interfere seriously with school, or other work, then it becomes the duty of the society to help the blind to attend to the case, and, if possible, prevent permanent or total blindness. This fact was most emphatically maintained at the New York Conference.
- (2) What is to be done if there is no sight-saving class available? It will depend entirely on the doctor's report as to the extent and nature of the defect. If it is possible to retain the child in an ordinary school this is much the best

course, but if the child is excluded as unable to profit from the education given then it is better for such a child to be in a school for the blind than to remain without any sort of education, in which case they should be taught in a separate class with cleartype books, blackboard, etc.

The presence of partially-sighted children in a school for the blind is much to be deprecated for two reasons:—

(a) It is difficult to give the partially-sighted child the attention needed if the sight is to be used and yet not strained. As to whether myopic children should be taught Braille there is considerable differences of opinion, the general opinion is that they should be taught but that every precaution should be used to make sure that they do not try to read it with their eyes—if they can see enough to do this then they should use large type print.

(b) The presence of partially-sighted children in a school for the blind tends to make the blind children dependent on the partially sighted for many things that they are quite capable of doing for themselves.

(3) Sight-saving work is a branch of social service that involves considerable work in following up the cases dealt with—every hospital and clinic knows that much of their time is wasted owing to the fact that their recommendations are not followed by people whose business it is to follow up eye cases. This strengthens the argument for special societies to deal with saving sight, rather than leaving the work to existing societies with other interests.

If a special society is impossible a department of some blind organization should specialise in the work.

In South Africa, where the nature of the country, and the sparseness of the population makes it undesirable to have many small societies, the best plan will probably be to have a special department under the National Council for the Blind. This department might, at any rate for the beginning also have a mandate to do work for prevention of blindness.

In this connection reference may be made to a practice which prevails in some countries, notably India and Egypt, by which prevention of blindness, and sight saving work is done by an itinerating doctor and nurse. They travel with a motor caravan which is equipped with instruments, etc., sufficient for minor operations. A village or district is visited and a centre is set up for one or two weeks.

All the schools in the neighbourhood are visited and adults needing advice and attention are treated. In this way people who cannot obtain the attention of an ophthalmologist, because they live too far away from a hospital where one can be consulted, may have the opportunity brought within reach. Something of this nature might be of great service in certain parts of South Africa.

APPENDIX IV.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE BLIND.

A question which is constantly confronting people who are in daily contact with the blind is : how far can the programme of " Normalization " be carried out, and how far must we always remember that the blind can never become the same as sighted people. The consensus of opinion is that those who are born without vision, or lose their sight before the years of conscious perception are, and will be until their death, different from other people.

From the beginning their concepts are not the same. Education may enable them to comprehend relative size, shape, and the uses of the objects they meet in life, but they can never grasp all that results from the contacts between people and things, because they never get a complete view. They know what is a house, a boat, a tree, a man, a tram, a street and so on to all that goes to make up a city like Cape Town ; but they can never sit on top of Table Mountain and see the whole picture, with the sea stretching to the horizon.

There must be a definite loss in this inability to form complete mental pictures.

The reactions of blind people to others around them will, of course, vary according to the blind individuals, but there are certain underlying factors to be remembered which do not occur with normal sighted people.

A blind person who is temperamentally, and physically, weak and indolent, will have a harder struggle to overcome than one who can see, and has the same innate tendencies. The fact that well meaning but thoughtless people often fail to encourage the blind, and make comments of disastrous nature in their presence, will only tend to make the weak-willed or weak-minded blind weaker, and increasingly less responsive to stimulation from without. It is difficult to analyse the thoughts of such people, but it is quite possible that years of unwise attention may even create in them an idea that the fact of being blind entitles them to certain attentions which they know others do not receive.

On the other hand blind people of normal, or even special, ability and gifts must have their reactions to life considerably influenced by the fact that their economic position is seriously handicapped by blindness. The removal of disabilities, and the opening of opportunities, help to mitigate the complications of social isolation, but it is doubtful if the sense of inability fully to express or develop their essential personality is ever completely removed from the blind.

It is frequently asserted that considerable damage is done to the normal development of a blind child by the fact that his, or her, achievements are frequently regarded as marvellous by friends and relatives. All schools are constantly subjected to visitors who comment audibly on the reading, or other work, of the children in their presence: during the holidays children are often the centre of wonder and curiosity, and admiration when they are called upon to show how they write Braille, or do some little piece of hand-work.

On the other hand it is possible that these attentions and comments are not so psychologically detrimental as may at first appear. It must be remembered that blind children lack the ordinary stimulation that comes from competitive work in school and home. Being called upon to demonstrate their work whether in school, home or concert, may have the result of stimulating greater achievement; blind persons cannot measure their own successes, and attainments, by the looks in the faces of parents and teachers: reasonable praise of their work probably supplies just this need in their lives.

In conclusion, these and other factors all emphasize the responsibility which rests on those who care for the blind, to study them, try to understand their thoughts, instincts, and aspirations, and, at the same time, try not to give any impression that they are being treated differently from other people.

APPENDIX V.

REGISTRATION OF THE BLIND.

There are two kinds of registration, one, a register of blind people and, two, a register of institutions working for the blind.

For many years work has been progressing everywhere in the collecting of information concerning blindness. A first need has always been reliable information concerning the blind people in the country concerned, and a survey of the work already being done. Experience has proved that it is not very easy to get these statistics for various reasons such as reluctance of blind people to give information about themselves, unwillingness on the part of the institution to allow an outside body to make a survey which is necessary if unbiased returns are to be obtained.

So for many years registration has been very difficult in most countries but all has been changed in those places where benefits are available for the blind either from state or private sources.

When blind people realise that by registering they will come within the scope of legislation affecting their welfare then they register, or at least a large

majority of them. Likewise with institutions, when it is realised that monetary grants depend upon being a registered institution then they are generally willing to comply.

Even so it is doubtful how far compulsory registration is possible. It is obvious that if the state is prepared to give financial assistance to the blind people who need it, and to institutions working for their benefit, then the state has got a right to insist that a register must be formed with sufficient safeguards as to what constitutes blindness, what type of institutional work is worthy of support and so on.

REGISTRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA. Up to the present no attempt has been made to introduce compulsory registration either of individuals or institutions. Since 1929 both the Worcester school for the Blind and the National Council for the Blind have been busy compiling a voluntary register in which they have had the co-operation of many blind people but the larger majority have not replied to the questionnaires sent out. Attempts have been made by the Census department to collect information when taking a general Census but it is the experience of all countries that such returns are far from reliable. A figure of ten thousand blind people in the Union has been quoted which figure is apparently arrived at on the basis of the 1911 Census, but it is very doubtful if this figure could be substantiated because it includes an estimate as to the number of blind natives, which estimate is very difficult as there is practically no reliable information on the subject.

There can be no question as to the importance of registration in a country like South Africa where there is no machinery to compel parents to have their blind children educated, and little state aid for adult work. Attempts to get the Government to do more for the blind are always met with a demand for accurate statistics.

The experience of other countries as to voluntary registration is being repeated in South Africa. It is only the minority amongst blind people who have sufficient understanding to realise why they are asked to register; only when it is obvious that advantages are to be obtained will all consent to register. Still it is necessary for various societies to persevere in assisting the National Council to compile a complete register because it is the basis upon which efforts can be made to improve the present condition in South Africa.

Whilst it is impossible to get a complete register of all adult blind people it should be easier with children. Given the full co-operation of the different educational departments, hospitals, clinics, voluntary societies of every kind in reporting every case of blindness that comes to their notice the National Council will build up a register which should be checked at regular periods.

The importance of the registration of the blind particularly applies to cases of congenital and acquired blindness for obvious reasons.

Speaking at the world's conference, M. Paul Guinot, of France, said:—

“A compulsory registration of all cases of congenital or acquired blindness seems to be indispensable if legal protection is to be sought.

“Even though such registration be unpopular, it should be exacted from the head of the household where the blind person has his residence, within three months after the illness or accident.”

APPENDIX VI.

HOMES FOR BLIND BABIES.

No one will question the statement that the natural home is the right home for every child during the first years of its life. But there are some children who are orphans, others whose parents are unable to provide a suitable home for a blind child owing to poverty, illness or a large family which often leads to the neglect of the blind one. There are also undesirable homes.

For these reasons it has been considered expedient in some countries to open special homes for blind babies; such are the Sunshine homes in England, Nursery homes in the U.S.A. and the Foundation Prince Alexander in Belgium. These institutions normally keep the children until they are five when they are admitted to a residential school.

In addition to these homes preparatory schools are met with in some places either independent or attached to a larger school. The value of these schools is in the fact that blind children frequently need more training than their parents are able to give in order to avoid mannerisms which are such a handicap in later life.

The need for such a home has already been felt in South Africa, and until one can be opened it is desirable that organizations for the blind, and schools, should enter the names of blind babies as early as possible. Parents can then be advised with regard to their training and pressure can be brought to bear on parents to send their children to school at an early age.

Our schools at present have to admit many children over 10 years of age, often with set habits which cannot be corrected. The reason is partly because no one has informed them of the existence of these children at an earlier date.

With regard to children who are indigent or orphan, until there is a Home to which they can be sent, a careful selection should be made of foster parents. Organizations for child welfare should consult with an organization for the blind when selecting foster parents for a blind baby, and the home should be visited frequently. In Canada the National Institute for the Blind supplements the local allowance which is due to foster parents of a blind child, this is to ensure that blind children will be kept in good private homes. This is a policy which can well be considered by the South African National Council for the Blind.

APPENDIX VII.

WHAT CONSTITUTES BLINDNESS.

A person unfamiliar with the working of a school for the blind, or any society caring for the adult blind, will probably assume that "Blind" means total inability to see, at any rate seeing only light and dark and so unable to move about freely.

As soon as one begins actual work for the blind one of the first questions that arise is what is the standard of vision that a child or person must fall below to be accounted blind?

The League of Nations Report on the Welfare of the Blind has devoted an entire chapter to this matter because there is a very wide divulgence in practise in the different countries of the world, and this should be studied by those who desire to arrive at a definite conclusion as to the best standard.

Two things appear from a study of the different standards in the world:—

(1) That a general standard is impossible. There must be one standard for children and another for adults.

(2) Most countries appear to have chosen between a descriptive definition and a numerical one.

With regard to the first it will be readily appreciated that the sight of a child changes and whereas it may have defective vision to such a degree as to interfere with ordinary school work, it does not follow that when the child grows up it will be unable to work as a sighted person. For this reason many children will be admitted to a school for the blind who have a considerable degree of sight but who, if they strained the sight with close reading, or even such reading as is possible in a sight-saving class, would become blind. For this reason it seems difficult to improve on the general definition which is statutory in the Union Education Department, namely:—"Too blind to be able to read ordinary school books." It must be admitted that there are occasions when a doctor is reluctant to say if a child falls in this category, in

which case it will be necessary to take the word of the teacher at the school where the child has been attending if the teacher affirms that ordinary study clearly affects the health of the child.

With adults the case is altogether different. Blindness affects their economic position and, in countries where the blind receive money benefits, privileges. Whilst some countries are content with a general definition, namely :—" So blind as to be unable to do any work for which eyesight is essential " it is sometimes difficult to guard against malingering, for which there is a temptation when there is legislation providing benefits for the blind. On the other hand, when the definition is a purely numerical one, such as one twentieth of normal vision, there is a grave danger of hardship to some people who may have comparatively good vision within a restricted area, but are virtually blind otherwise.

In South Africa no definition has been generally accepted by all the societies working amongst the blind, although the National Council advise acceptance of the general definitions given above. If, and when, legislation is introduced for the blind it will be necessary to adopt a definition to determine who shall be eligible for benefits. The adoption of a numerical definition has the advantage of enabling ophthalmologists to determine easily who is, and who is not, blind, and it seems from experience in other lands that where visual acuity is less than one twentieth of the normal—refractive error being corrected ($3/60$ th Snellan) the person is usually unable to perform work for which eyesight is essential, and is therefore blind. It is to be hoped that International agreement will be reached as to the best standard.

APPENDIX VIII.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

Even in countries where it is compulsory for normal children to attend school it is by no means universal that the same compulsion operates in the case of handicapped children.

This is clearly unjust for the very fact that the child is handicapped means that it has greater need of education to enable him, or her, to overcome the handicap and compete with a normal person.

The plight of an uneducated man or woman is so pathetic that one is forced to the conviction that every opportunity should be given whilst young to avoid the possibility of such a position.

However, as compulsory education for the blind is still not considered essential in all countries, including South Africa, it is well to examine reasons given for not enforcing it.

(1) Parents are frequently unwilling to send a blind child from home and the state is unwilling to force them, maintaining that if parents say they can adequately provide for the blind child it is autocratic to assert that they cannot do so.

To this contention there is only one answer :—if it is considered that parents have not the ability, or right, to say if they can educate their normal child why should they be allowed to do so in the case of a child whose education is more difficult. It is true that where parents are compelled to provide for the education of their children (normal) they may do so at home if they wish, but they will be expected to prove that adequate provision is being made. So likewise with a blind child—compulsory education will not remove from the parents the right to make such provision as they wish, but they should be compelled to show that the provision they are making is suitable to the need of the child.

(2) The difficulties attending compulsory education of the blind are so great as to make it impracticable; they are maintained to be (a) the difficulty of providing schools within easy reach of many homes from which the blind children will come, and (b) even when there is a law compelling parents to send their blind children to school it is all but impossible to enforce the law

To these contentions it may be said, (a) whilst it is true schools may often be far from homes, still travel facilities are now such that transport is comparatively easy. (b) The same machinery which exists for compelling parents to provide schooling for their normal children can also be used for the blind.

There are at least three good reasons why the education of the blind should be compulsory, namely:—

(1) The interests of the child concerned, and this should overrule every other scruple.

(2) To protect the general public. The majority of organisations that work for the adult blind draw the bulk of their funds from the public, and their greatest burdens are invariably those blind people who have had no schooling, or inadequate training.

(3) In the interests of the state itself. Indolent, unemployable blind people will sooner or later become a heavy burden to the public authorities of the district in which they live, and may even have to be maintained entirely for many years in a public institution.

Assuming that it costs the state fifty pounds a year to educate and train a blind child, and that the period in school is fifteen years, the cost will be £750. An unemployable blind person can easily cost five or six times that amount being maintained for 40 or 50 years.

In South Africa the position is that children of European extraction are bound to attend school, and facilities must be provided unless it can be proved that they are unable to benefit by the education provided. In that case they are refused admission to school and it is left to the parents to take advantage, or not, of educational facilities suitable to the child.

To introduce compulsory education for the blind will require an amendment to the existing education Act. The National Council for the Blind have tried and are still trying to persuade the proper authorities to introduce the necessary legislation, but so far without success.

At the present time the state spends a considerable sum of money annually on the education of those blind children whose parents will take advantage of it, but, not having a compulsory measure on the statute book, they do not assure themselves of obtaining the best return for the money spent. It is possible for parents (and often happens) to keep their children at home until almost too old to benefit by the education, or to keep them at home whenever they feel so disposed.

No doubt one of the difficulties attending the matter is financial, and this will be more fully considered in appendix 9, d.

APPENDIX IX.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS.

(a) *Dual Schools.* In many parts of the world a school for the blind is run in connection with a school for the deaf and dumb. It will be readily understood that in the early days of education for the handicapped money was difficult to obtain and often it was necessary to be as economical as possible—for this reason charitably-minded people started the schools for the two classes of handicapped children at the same time. The plan cannot be called successful and the only person I have ever met who has tried to defend it was a lady in charge of a mission school in Ceylon; she affirmed that the blind children and the deaf and dumb children got on very happily together, which has been confirmed by others who have seen this school—some of them people of experience and knowledge who have been in touch with the school for many years. The more usual experience is that there is virtually nothing in common between them and that for this reason it is better that the two types of school should not be associated in any way, although they may be under the same administration.

(b) *Mentally defective blind.* The problem of the mentally defective blind child is a very real one. In the first place it is not easy to determine if a blind

child is really mentally defective, or whether the apparent condition is the result of retardation due to blindness.

For this reason if there is any doubt whatsoever the child should be sent to a school for the blind in order that they may see if there is any re-action to educational methods such as to justify the child continuing as a normal blind child.

When it is established that a child is mentally defective it should not be left amongst normal blind children, both for its own sake and because of the difficulty to the teacher of dealing with such children in a class which demands full attention. Where then should such a child be sent? Practice varies in different countries. In some places there are special schools entirely devoted to such children; in other places they are sent to an institution for the feeble minded; in yet other places the school for the blind retains them but has a separate class, and (as far as possible) separate hostel accommodation.

In South Africa there is no adequate provision made for the needs of the mentally defective handicapped child. In the institutions for the feeble-minded there are several blind children but the authorities are rightly reluctant to receive them because they are not able to do anything practical for them and their presence in the institution is only likely to add to the staff work. On the other hand, in the schools for the blind there are several children who would do better if separated into a special class, either as backward or mentally defective. Both the schools for the blind in the Union say that they hold themselves ready to accept any blind children *except* the mentally defective.

The reason is obvious. Nevertheless it is a pathetic situation when a blind, mentally weak child cannot be sent anywhere where its need will be readily understood and sympathetically cared for by trained people.

(c) *Degrees of blindness.* Reference has already been made in another appendix to the fact that for educational purposes a child is generally accepted as blind if unable to read ordinary school books—in the Union of South Africa this is a statutory definition of blindness.

The necessary result is that there are many varying degrees of sight amongst the children in a school for the blind. The larger the school the easier the classification. It is impossible to keep rigid rules in a school comprising children of many varying degrees of sight and mental attainment, especially when some of the children may have lost their sight after having spent some years in a sighted school. It means that children may have to take different subjects in different standards according to their attainments.

Another factor that has to be kept in mind is that whereas a child may have defective sight such as to make it harmful for the sight to attend an ordinary school, if the child is to conserve its sight it has, that as an adult it will not come into the category of a blind person. Such a child should not be educated purely as a blind child, it should always be remembered that after school days he, or she, will have to work as a sighted person. It cannot be too strongly insisted that in all schools where there are children with varying degrees of vision these children should have their sight tested periodically. In Scotland every child in a school for the blind has to have the sight examined annually.

(d) *Finance.* School. The financing of a school for the blind is costly. In some countries the entire responsibility is carried by the state. In others grants-in-aid are given to voluntary bodies who are responsible for such schools. In a very few places are to be found schools for the blind entirely supported out of the money provided by the generous public.

In South Africa the government carries a large share of the responsibility for the schools. In the case of white children the teachers are paid by the government and there is a grant towards equipment. In the case of the school for non-white children $\frac{2}{3}$ of the teachers' salaries are met by the state and a share of equipment.

Maintenance. It is clearly the duty of such parents as are able to assist in the maintenance of their blind child whilst receiving education. The way in which maintenance fees are collected by the school authorities naturally varies considerably in different countries. In South Africa the practice is

for the parent of a blind child to apply (direct, or through the school), for a maintenance grant if they are able to show that they are not able to support the child, nor have relatives able to do so. The government is prepared to make a grant for such a child varying according to the fact of whether the child is white or not. If it is considered that the parents, or relatives, are in a position to help in the maintenance of the child the amount of the grant is reduced accordingly, and the school left to collect the share which the government does not pay.

This plan has the effect of depriving the schools of a considerable amount of money that is due to them, for it is not easy for the school authorities to collect from parents, especially when the amount has been assessed by a government official. It would appear a fairer plan for the government to pay the full amount to the schools and then collect from the parents their share. In some countries, e.g., Canada, the government (provincial in the case of Canada) makes a fixed allowance and then collects from the relatives, or some local authority, a share of the cost of maintenance *but never the full amount*. The reason for this would appear to be that the government wishes to keep a restraining hand upon those children for whom it is spending considerable sums in education facilities. There is much to be said for such a measure in the interests of the state itself.

The clause in the special Act in the Statute book of the province of Sass reads as follows :—The expenses incurred by the minister for the maintenance and education of any deaf or blind person may be collected from the municipality in which the parent or legal guardian of such person usually resides or from such parent or legal guardian, but not more than $\frac{2}{3}$ rd's may be collected from the parent or legal guardian. Clause 9 (1).

APPENDIX X.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF THE BLIND.

It is not necessary to stress the fact that those who teach handicapped children must obtain special qualifications in addition to those which they possess by nature, such as patience, sympathy and adaptability. The acquired qualifications will be mainly a knowledge of the theory of Braille, and all other methods used in education, together with a sound acquaintance with the principles of psychology, and their special relation to the handicapped.

The question naturally arises as to how these qualifications can be obtained, what training is necessary to become a good teacher of the blind? Attempts have been made to answer this question in various ways. Whilst those who are responsible for training teachers of the blind may differ in details certain principles appear to be accepted almost everywhere.

The first is that those who wish to teach the blind should first have some experience of ordinary teaching in order that their ability to "Educate" as well as impart information may be established.

The second principle is that during the years of training there must be contact with the blind, including some teaching practice.

A third principle accepted in most countries is that men and women who are engaged in work demanding special qualifications, which can only be obtained by much study and patient application, should be granted a diploma, carrying with it extra remuneration. Apart from the fact that sheer justice calls for this consideration, it is also true that only by such a special grant will it be possible to attract some of the best of the young teachers who are not able to approach any special branch of education from purely humanitarian motives, they have to consider the economic factor, namely, that the harder the teaching task the heavier the tax on the teacher; the more insistent is the need to study and keep in close touch with all branches of work and education—a duty which cannot be adequately performed without sufficient means.

It is unnecessary to discuss whether a special training school for teachers of the blind is the best method, as exists in Italy; or whether they can be adequately trained in the school for the blind where they take up work, the examination for the special diploma being set by an independent body—which system prevails in England. It is not of any value to discuss this because in South Africa there are only two schools for the blind, both comparatively small with small staffs, so that training in loco is the only possible course. At present there is no examining board in South Africa granting diplomas to teachers who qualify, but it is much to be hoped that the responsible body, the Union Education Dept., in consultation with the school authorities, will be able to arrange a course of study and training for teachers taking up the special work, so that the best of our young teachers may be encouraged to offer themselves—naturally the obtaining of a diploma will be the object of the course, the diploma being accompanied by a special scale of remuneration, over and above the ordinary scale applicable to ordinary teachers.

In this connection it is interesting to note that in America they are not satisfied with providing facilities for teachers to be trained in special work, but there is also an opportunity for those who desire to go further and specialise in the work, or in some branch of it. This special course of study has for several years been connected with the Perkins Institution, Watertown, Mass., and has been developed under Dr. Allen, the former director of that institution. The course of study is taken in connection with the department of special studies, attached to Harvard University, and is open to students from all parts of America, indeed from anywhere in the world. Particulars could be obtained from Dr. Allen, c/o Perkins Institution.

APPENDIX XI.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS.

When a blind child enters school it is very difficult to ascertain how far it is normal in intelligence because there is always a certain retardation due to blindness. It is therefore very important to have some tests which will enable the teacher to obtain a first idea as to whether the child can be expected to make normal progress, or whether there are definite signs of defect. As many of the intelligence tests which are used for children are pure performance tests it has been found necessary to make many adaptations to suit the case of a blind child. A great deal of work has been put into this matter by psychologists and educationalists in Great Britain and America with the result that to-day there are a number of standard tests which are used for blind children. They are based on the ordinary tests with certain modifications and alterations, a few special tests being added. The tests now usually employed are on the basis of the Binet scale, with alterations suggested as the result of research work carried out by Dr. S. P. Hayes, director of research, Pennsylvania institution for the Blind. A copy of the Record sheet used for the Binet-Hayes tests may be seen in the office of the S.A. National Council for the Blind.

It will be readily understood that if blind children are tested when they enter school in order to obtain an indication as to their general intelligence, it is essential that a record be kept of all characteristics, attainments, etc. This keeping of records adds considerably to the labours of those in charge of our schools, but the value of the records is great, not only as a guide to the authorities in the training of the particular child, it also has a contribution to the whole subject of the psychology of blindness. We cannot urge too strongly that such records should be kept in our schools. A specimen record of a child in a certain American school is attached to this appendix; it is hardly to be expected that our over-worked teachers will be able to keep such full records, but a short record will, in the end, save much time for it will be an indication as to ability and possibility, and so probably save the chance of serious mistake in placement.

With regard to tests to help in the determination of trade ability very little, if anything, has been done which is especially suitable for the blind. This is a branch of practical psychology which has only recently been explored, and in which experiments are only now being made so that it will take some time before it will be possible to standardize them for the blind.

Chief Questions on a typical case study card, as used in Perkins Institution, Boston, Mass. General questions are here omitted.

Occupation of father,
 Type of home..... Home attitude to child,
 Heredity,
 Association in school.....Acceptability,
 Recreation; Active..... Sedentary,
 Outside interests,
 Degree of Independence..... Initiative.....
 Perseverance,
 Appearance,
 Vocational Aptitude,
 Vicious or Undesirable Habits..... Correction.....
 Tics and Mannerisms.....
 Regular Duties in School.....
 Leadership Qualities..... In What.....
 Past School History..... Disabilities.....
 Special abilities.....
 Present Difficulties.....
 Then follow a number of questions on physical characteristics.
 Summary.....
 Types of Remedial Work used.....
 Follow up.....
 Typical case study, as used at Perkins Institution, abbreviated.

I. *Facts regarding admission.*

1. Entered.....
2. Blindness.....due to congenital amblyopia.
3. Previous training. S— Attended the blind babies nursery; She was dismissed because she demanded too much individual attention from the teachers and attendants and because her language was bad, and harmful to others.
4. Family. Father works in a factory..... Father very devoted to S—, Mother not.....

II. *Psychological Examination* (Irwin-Hayes Tests).

S— is a backward child, considerably below average, etc.

III. *Personality and Impressions:*

1. To the casual observer S— is a pretty, affectionate child. It is easy for people to spoil her and give her the attention she craves, etc.
 Whenever possible she is dramatic. She keeps the class waiting, she pretends she can't find her place, etc.
2. S— goes quickly from one extreme emotion to another, etc.
3. Mannerisms:
 It is very difficult for S— to keep still
 She turns her hands and wrists in a queer fashion.....
4. In the Kindergarten:
 S— does very little work when left alone, etc.
5. Punishment:
 Having such characteristics S— invariably needs firm handling
 Many ordinary forms of punishment only increase S—'s sense of importance.....

IV. Conclusions.

1. S— is unusually immature for her years.....
2. She has had unwise, unfortunate previous training.
3. She is a difficult problem case.....
4. After a trial of several months S— has failed to adapt herself academically and although she now sees she cannot have her own way or the desired attention she has failed also from the standpoint of socialisation.

APPENDIX XII.

THE SEX LIFE OF THE BLIND.

As already stated in the essay, blindness in itself very often forms an extr difficulty with regard to sex stimulation because blind people rely so much on touch. They have naturally all normal instincts and impulses, and as a child grows curiosity is aroused owing to what is heard or read. With sighted children curiosity is frequently unconsciously satisfied by what they see in nature.

The blind are deprived of this. There is also the fact that sex expressions such as kissing and fondling, provide a sensory pleasure to the blind and in the case of small children they should not be denied it.

As with sighted people so with the blind it is possible to direct aright growing instincts and impulses, and to provide a healthy atmosphere in which the natural affections implanted by God may grow.

The importance of sex instruction is so obvious that it does not call for comment beyond the fact that the same principles pertain with the blind as with the sighted: instruction should begin early, and be quite natural following the lines of elementary biology. The principal teacher should personally supervise this instruction with growing children, delegating the task to others only when assured of their ability to perform this difficult duty.

The one factor to be kept in mind is that for after life the blind should never marry the blind; the economic difficulty is too great to say nothing of the domestic difficulties.

This is not an idle warning, for when blind children are thrown very much together at school, or when they meet few friends after school, it is possible that mutual attraction may grow between a blind lad and a blind girl. In fact in Great Britain, and in some American States, the blind have so often married the blind that legislation has had to say that if two blind people marry they will be entitled to draw state benefits only as one individual.

Writing in general terms it is much to be desired that a normal blind man should be happily married for reasons which will be very obvious. Alas, the same cannot be said of blind girls.

Very rarely is a sighted man to be found who can fully enter the life of a blind girl, denying himself much and also leaving her to carry out duties at the home which a man naturally prefers his wife to do rather than any one else.

The whole question of the sex life of the blind comes back to what we have often written in the essay, that the blind should be brought into association with the sighted as much as possible and then most problems will solve themselves.

APPENDIX XIII.

PHYSICAL DEFECTS.

Unfortunately it is a fact that many blind people carry themselves badly. In some cases this is due to actual physical defects, sometimes the result of mal-nutrition; other times it is simply the result of mistaken kindness on the part of parents who allow blind children to loll about and sit carelessly especially at table.

The older children get, the harder it is to correct these defects besides being wearisome both to the teacher and the pupil. There is only one thing to be done—they must be corrected as early as possible.

A child who sits or walks badly can frequently be corrected by a slight pressure from the teacher's hand on the shoulder or back, which the child learns to recognise as a hint to sit up.

The same applies to another common habit in blind children, namely, that of dropping their head forward. Instead of repeatedly telling them to lift it up it is better for the teacher just to touch their forehead, or lift them under the chin, without speaking a word.

But not all physical defects can be corrected so easily especially if they have real physical cause, such as flat foot, curvature of the spine, weak chest and so on. Graduated exercises are essential and as the child grows older these should be combined with gymnastic exercises, dancing and swimming.

Physical culture will take its normal place in the school curriculum but at school for the blind there will always be one or two children who need a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes individual attention every day.

Gymnasium. In a school for the blind this will differ very little from one in a sighted school except that much more supervision is needed. The same applies to swimming, which is one of the best exercises there is for blind children—supervision is necessary when blind children are in the water otherwise a child may get a cramp and be drowned without being noticed. But every school should have both a gymnasium and a swimming pool.

Out of school games are very important. Running, long jumping, putting the weight and various other races can be played by blind children. I have also met schools where wrestling is taught to the boys. For smaller children in-door and out-door equipment should be provided which they can play on by themselves, and small carts, motor car tyres used as hoops and tipping ropes should be easily accessible.

For older children guides and scouts not only provide extra activity but also are an opportunity for blind children to feel themselves a part of a larger organisation. A blind troop should never be left out when there are local competitions.

If trouble is taken over all these things it will make a great difference in the deportment of the blind, which in turn affects their personal pride. No blind child likes to feel that he or she is the subject of comment because of the way they walk or sit; it must be remembered that the blind do not see others which is a great stimulus to sighted children with physical defects.

APPENDIX XIV.

SPEECH DEFECTS.

Careful speech is even more important with the blind than with sighted people because so much depends upon their ability to express themselves readily.

Any signs of speech defect, stammering, stuttering, cleft palate, retarded speech, etc., must therefore be carefully watched.

In the first place it is now accepted that a large number of children suffering from speech defect have slight deafness so that the first thing to be done is a blind child stutters or stammers, or is slow of speech, is to have its hearing tested. This may be necessary periodically.

Another common cause of speech defect is nervousness, which is made worse if the child is worried or not properly helped.

It is hardly likely that many schools will be able to afford the services of a special teacher to care for their blind children who require speech correction; in fact I only saw such a teacher at one school, namely, Perkins Institution, near Boston. The more usual procedure will be for the teachers to find such children to take special trouble in giving them a lesson by themselves.

If there is a school for the deaf near by advice should be sought and, if necessary, arrangements made for a trained teacher of speech to visit the school for the blind in order to give lessons to those needing them.

The chief thing is never to think lightly of speech defects; whether they are due to a nervous or to an oral cause they form an additional handicap to a child already sufficiently burdened. If neglected they may complicate life very seriously.

APPENDIX XV.

THE UNTRAINABLE (UNEMPLOYABLE) BLIND.

In every community there are a certain number of blind children who do not respond to training, and some adults who are incapable of working so as to maintain themselves, or make any contribution to their own support. There are various reasons why these blind people are so difficult; mental retardation may make it impossible for them to learn; or a further physical disability, such as deafness, may complicate the situation. If they are mentally defective they will naturally have to be treated as such, otherwise they must be grouped with the blind in general. To separate a blind child or adult from the company of blind people just because he, or she, is economically a burden, and not an asset, would be cruel. The only thing to be done is to face the facts as they are and to keep them in a school for the blind, or some other institution, occupied with whatever they are able to do. In school it is more difficult because it is obviously the first duty of teachers to devote their time and energy to those who respond, others must frankly be left with some childish occupation such as putting pegs into holes, or sorting cards. In a work shop a blind man or woman who cannot do good work can be left to carry on with something which will fill up their mind, even if it is of little or no value. If put into an institution for the infirm or mentally disorganised, where the others are all sighted, they will simply degenerate, and add to the burden of the attendants, who do not understand the blind at all, whereas in an institution for the blind they will at any rate be in the care of those who know the limitations of the blind, and the extent to which they can do anything at all.

APPENDIX XVI.

SUITABLE TRADES FOR THE BLIND.

By the very nature of their handicap blind people are generally capable of becoming very adept at many trades involving the use of their hands. Whilst there are a number of trades in which the blind can become proficient workmen, there are very few which a blind man can manage entirely on his own, without any sighted help. In fact there is only one stable trade which a blind man can carry right through, namely, basket work, and cognate occupations such as fancy wicker work. It is possible for a blind person to make a basket entirely unaided, and so to have the satisfaction of feeling he, or she, is independent. For this reason basket work is in many countries the most popular trade for the blind, and it is likely to remain so for reasons stated, and also because there is little likelihood of factory competition.

There is a temptation sometimes to think that because blind men can quickly learn to weave types of baskets that therefore the trade is soon acquired. As with everything else good workmanship in basket making requires long and careful training. In England five years is allowed for men, and three years for women—presumably because they do not learn to make heavier types.

The training of a blind basket maker is often spoilt owing to the fact that it is not sufficiently realised that ample space is essential. The pitch required for ease, and speed, in work is eight feet by seven feet six inches; each worker having his own set of tools at hand.

The making of cane chairs, tables and other furniture, rush-work, and cane seating, are all additional occupations which a basket maker quickly

learns, about six months for each being usually sufficient, but they are not occupations which keep men fully employed, unless it be cane furniture work in large centres of population.

Brush and broom making are very popular as workshop trades, but cannot be carried out by a man in his own home. There are several processes in all forms of this work and, generally speaking, a workman is content to master one process. Certain machinery is necessary and it is of utmost importance that any workshop contemplating the setting up of a broom or brush making department should be assured of a market for the goods when made. A full description of this trade and others will be found in an article by Mr. S. W. Starling, of Birmingham, England, in the published report of the proceedings of the New York Conference. Moreover, as a South African gentleman is at present studying occupations for the blind overseas, in order to assist and advise societies in the Union, it seems unnecessary to give detailed information in this note, but it may be added that the making of corn brooms, which is so popular in the United States, seems hardly suited to South Africa. The cost of the necessary machinery is very considerable and it is doubtful if brooms could be produced at a price to compete with the cheap corn brooms which are imported from overseas. Other occupations which have been found very suitable for blind workmen include coir mattress making, net work, the making of fend-offs, and machine knitting. The latter is so profitable, and particularly suitable for women, that fuller reference may be made to it.

There are two kinds of knitting machines: those employed in round work (stockings, etc.) and those used for flat work (jumpers, etc.). Three years is necessary for training, in which time a totally blind worker should be adept at using the machine. The most difficult process is the closing of the toes, which is best done by carefully transferring from the machine to hand knitting needles. In conclusion it cannot be too strongly urged that a thorough training is essential to good workmanship; even a large number of workers will grow slack if left to work on their own. In the large majority of cases occupation in a workshop, under regular supervision, is necessary.

APPENDIX XVII.

THE BLIND IN SCHOOLS FOR THE SIGHTED.

The chief objection to blind students continuing their higher education in ordinary schools is that they will not be able to enter into the general life of the school, especially the sports. Educationally a blind boy or girl who has reached the higher standards should not find much difficulty in an ordinary school, given teachers of sympathy and understanding. Notes will be given in Braille, and exercises typed. Where books are unobtainable in Braille it will be necessary to depend on the services of a reader, but this should not be hard to arrange. Mathematics and natural science present difficulties which can only be overcome with ingenuity and patience. Special slates, and other apparatus, have been devised but they are not easy to obtain apart from schools which especially provide for blind scholars.

The strain of trying to keep pace in an ordinary school, together with the fact that participation in games is impossible, will tend to make the life of a blind scholar far from healthy and happy.

However, it is seldom that a school for the blind has staff sufficient to teach the very advanced pupils, so that these young people have no alternative but to try to acquire their knowledge in an ordinary school with sighted children, but, whenever possible, this should be done as a day pupil at a school near the school for the blind.

By remaining in the school where all the earliest lessons were learned, and in touch with friends and teachers able and willing to help, a blind student can learn in the day school, and carry out private study in an atmosphere which approximates to home. Moreover, suitable games and recreation will be available. This is, we understand, what actually is happening in South Africa.

APPENDIX XVIII.

READERS TO THE BLIND.

In one or two American cities I was much struck to find a group of people calling themselves "The Guild of readers to the blind."

They attached themselves to the local school or institution, or home for aged people for the purpose of going to read to the blind.

Members of the guild especially aim at reading to blind students, and others with developed intellectual tastes, books which they cannot get in Braille.

In line with this work is the interesting fact that the American Red Cross, working together with the Lions club (an organisation not unlike the Rotary club) have a special department to assist societies for the blind in different ways which hardly come in the course of the societies' work, that is, e.g., they take the poorer blind people out for motor rides, they arrange picnics and excursions, and in countless other ways make a real contribution to the happiness of blind people.

APPENDIX XIX.

OPENINGS IN PROFESSIONAL LIFE FOR THE BLIND.

There are, of course, many blind people to whom a trade of any kind offers no attraction: they desire to contribute something to life as well as to obtain much out of it. These people turn to various professions: some are completely closed to the blind, e.g., the medical profession; others offer a limited scope of usefulness to those who are prepared to work hard to overcome the difficulties connected with their handicap, notably the difficulty of obtaining sufficient scientific books.

The first question which arises when a blind lad, or girl, desires to enter a profession is: how and where can the necessary training be obtained? In Germany, and some other countries, there are schools for higher education especially adapted to assist blind students; in England, America, and other places, there are special high schools for special subjects. Still a blind student who desires to persevere, and obtain the highest academical qualifications, will probably have to employ the services of a guide and amanuensis:—all these difficulties add to the labours of the blind, still there is in almost every country outstanding examples of blind men and women who, having conquered all difficulties, are filling a useful role in life.

For many years the stable profession for the blind has been *music* which offers varied opportunities as teachers, organists, members of an orchestra, and so on. Musicians who could not reach the first ranks in their profession were generally able to earn a sufficient living in a small orchestra. To a large extent this has changed.

Whilst musically gifted blind people of outstanding ability can still live by their profession, there are very few openings for those of average attainment owing to the great increase in the popularity of mechanical music.

Other professions which offer scope to the blind are:—

Teaching. It is not easy for a blind person to be a teacher, the chief difficulty being that of holding the class together, and maintaining discipline. Generally blind teachers are most successful with older children, and when teaching theoretical subjects needing the minimum of blackboard work.

In Germany, where there are a number of blind teachers, especially in girls' schools, it is generally considered necessary for the teacher to have a sighted assistant for demonstration work, black board writing, and to read quotations from books not published in Braille; sometimes a pupil can be used for this purpose.

The Christian ministry. In most countries there are to be found several blind ordained men, although it must be admitted that many of the duties which fall to a minister under modern conditions present difficulty to a blind

man, and so he must have an assistant. The specifically spiritual side of the work is quite possible for a blind man. So far as we know there is only one ordained man in South Africa.

Law. Blind advocates and barristers have often been very successful in their profession, given the help of an intelligent assistant. There is more than one example of a blind lawyer entering politics and ultimately obtaining a seat in the parliament of his country.

Massage is the only profession in the medical world which is open to the blind. In Japan for many decades massage has been a profession reserved for the blind, in other countries blind masseurs have had to compete with sighted masseurs, which is much more satisfactory. A very specialised, thorough training is needed, also a sound educational basis, and a strong physique. The difficulty is often for the trained blind masseur to build up a good clientele, but this can be done with co-operation of local doctors. The blind masseur is generally happiest when on the staff of a hospital or an institution. Whatever profession a blind man may wish to adopt there will be much work and study to be covered, and then the patch will not always be smooth for there is still considerable prejudice to be encountered, often where least expected.

APPENDIX XX.

COMMERCIAL OPENINGS FOR THE BLIND.

For many years it was considered that blind people could only work at trades, except for the few who entered professional life.

Now, however, it has been proved by experience that blind people can successfully engage in commercial work. In particular the following are found suitable occupations :—

Typewriting. Blind people can become very quick in the use of typewriters, and in offices where a dictaphone is used they can work as well as a sighted person.

Stenography. It is now possible, with the aid of a special machine, for blind people to learn a system of Braille shorthand.

The machine consists of strips of Braille paper which pass from one roller to another as they are written on; when completed it can be fixed on to the front of a typewriter, and so the letters can be read by the typist.

Agency work. This has been much developed in America. It is found that blind people can do all the work connected with insurance, and other agencies, provided that they have learned a system of book-keeping at school. Of course they will need a guide to take them round when calling on their clients, but this is true of many occupations.

Telephone. In some of the larger exchanges blind girls have proved very successful switch board operators. Work of this kind presents a good opening for a blind girl in a business house which has its own exchange.

Other possibilities in commercial life may present themselves, such as interpreting, but in all the occupations the chief thing to be remembered is that a thorough ground work must be given during school days. A blind person will never do well in business unless he, or she, is thoroughly reliable in spelling, grammar and mental arithmetic.

APPENDIX XXI.

TRAVEL FACILITIES.

The handicap of blindness means that ease of movement is restricted, and whilst education can develop self-reliance it cannot entirely remove this difficulty in the life of the blind. Whatever their work there will always be the question as to how they can best travel backwards and forwards from

their homes, or to the various places to which their work calls them. Realising the importance of this factor in the life of the blind, officials in many countries have secured special travel facilities to help them.

Special travel facilities for blind children travelling to and from school vary in different countries, but wherever civilised conditions touching education prevail then there are facilities to enable the children to reach their schools in the most economical manner. In South Africa there are liberal special rates for travel for blind, and other handicapped children.

With adults we find considerable variety in the provision made to help them move about in the conduct of their work. On 41 American railway systems special rates are given to blind travellers, apparently regardless as to whether they are travelling on work or for their own convenience.

In most other countries it is expressly laid down that the facilities offered apply only when the blind are travelling in the conduct of their work. This is fair. The facilities vary: in some countries the blind travel for half fare, or if they have a guide the two travel for one fare. In South Africa it is made a condition that the blind person must be accompanied by a guide, and then the two travel for the fare of one. This is a little hard as often a blind man is too poor to pay a guide; friends or relatives will put him on a train and others meet him and take him to work.

In many places tram and bus companies offer free tickets to blind people and this is a real help in big cities. So far as we know Johannesburg is the only city in the Union where this is granted.

APPENDIX XXII.

HOME TEACHING.

The problem of how to teach people who have been blinded is one that has always exercised the minds of those who work with the blind.

For obvious reasons it is not easy for adults to go to a school for the blind. So a system has grown up by which itinerating teachers visit such people in their homes to teach them Braille or Moon Type, and generally to encourage them to feel that after all life holds something even if they have lost their sight. Experience proves that blind people are generally best teachers for this work because they understand, and also because a blind person is helped to know that the one who is teaching him is likewise blind.

It was soon found that there are many other things such visitors can do. They can teach handicrafts as well as reading: in the case of small children too young for school the House Teacher can help the mother very considerably; they can also visit the aged and sick.

It may be asked whether any blind person of sympathy and tact can undertake such work and the answer is most decidedly no. The work is as difficult as teaching in a school, and in some ways more difficult, so that training is necessary.

But this is not easy except in countries where there are a large number of Home Teachers, then it is generally found easiest to have short courses of training annually. As well as what will be learned in such courses there is the fact that the Home Teachers will be able to exchange experiences, and so learn.

In conclusion it must be admitted that this kind of work is difficult in a country like South Africa where the blind are scattered over a wide area. It is, however, essential that every large centre of work for the blind should have one Home Teacher at least on their staff, who could occasionally be sent into the country. The salary of the Home Teacher will mainly be the responsibility of some society for the blind, but the nature of the work commends itself as one which should be subsidised by the state.

APPENDIX XXIII.

SIGHTED LABOUR IN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND.

A criticism which is often made of institutions for the blind is that they have a very large number of sighted workers in proportion to the number of blind people. The smaller the institution the more apparent this will be to the casual observer. It is a very difficult matter; all who are concerned for the blind realise that every possible opening should be made for the blind people, at the same time it must be admitted that there are several duties which even the best of blind people perform indifferently, whereas sighted people could do them better and, at the same time, increase the comfort and well-being of the blind.

This applies particularly to workshops. Amongst workshop managers it is much debated whether or not it is right to employ a certain percentage of sighted labour. In basket making factories no sighted workman is needed other than the foreman, but in most other shops there are certain things to be done in the process which add greatly to the saleable value of the goods, but which a blind worker cannot really do in a satisfactory manner.

As the manager of Glasgow workshops (Mr. Geo. Danby) said to me it is surely better to employ 5 per cent. sighted labour if the output is going to be increased by 20 per cent. in quantity and quality, for thereby a larger number of blind workers will, in the end, be kept occupied.

In schools, hostels, and other institutions, it is right that the principle of using blind labour as much as possible should be maintained, at the same time the well-being of the blind inmates must not be sacrificed, especially in the case of small children whose habits have to be formed in a way which can be done only by sighted people.

APPENDIX XXIV.

WORKSHOP ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT.

The experience of visiting a really large workshop for blind people is one that is not quickly, or easily, forgotten. An institution such as the Glasgow Royal Asylum for the Blind, with its hundreds of workpeople, its spacious shops, the busy noise of traffic in the yard as travellers come and go, its hostel accommodation for those who do not live near, and its busy office, all impress the visitor as a marvel of efficient organisation and management. If we look for the secret we find it in the fact that the institution is managed by a man who understands the blind from years of intimate association with them, and who believes in their capacity to work together as a group, and therefore he organises and controls in much the same way as would be done in an extensive factory for sighted workmen. But there is always the difference; to quote the words of Mr. Geo. Danby, manager of the workshop referred to above:—

“A manager's position in a factory where sighted people only are employed is not a bed of roses, but where blind people are engaged in industrial occupations then his couch is a thorny one indeed. To be a successful (but perhaps not popular) manager he must be sympathetic, a strict disciplinarian, and have the patience of Job and the wisdom of Solomon to meet the various problems peculiar to blind people. In addition to trading and industrial matters he is confronted daily with the home troubles of many of his workers, who, quite naturally, look to their manager for advice and assistance in their difficulties, and in his leisure (?) time, the social side has to be considered—concerts, whist drives, dances, etc., organised to keep the younger element interested.”

In a country where there is a system of augmentation of wages it will be necessary to keep very careful record of the exact amount earned, and to ensure that the knowledge that earnings will be supplemented does not cause a worker to slacken in his work. Where there is no state augmentation of wages it will be necessary in many cases to supplement the earnings of the blind from charitable funds, but great care must be exercised to ensure that a record is kept of actual earnings. Discipline must be as rigidly maintained in a workshop for the blind as in one for the sighted, the only effective punishment for any breach of discipline being the stopping of wages, and in extreme cases dismissal. In the sale of goods it is always well to aim at selling by the value of the goods, not relying in any way on sentiment prompting people to purchase the goods because they are made by the blind. This does not mean that the fact that the goods are made by the blind should not be advertised, on the contrary, this should be done in the hope of building up such a reputation that purchasers will look for goods made by the blind knowing that they will get well-made goods.

In many places goods made by the blind bear a trade mark which is registered, and there is much to be said for the plan provided that it is always remembered that workshops for the blind must aim at turning out such goods as will be able to hold their own in open competition with goods made by sighted labour. In the disposal of goods it is not enough to rely on the services of a central depôt, goods must be taken to the doors of the people, and to the buyers in large establishments, for this reason the services of a traveller are essential and if he can be a blind, or partially sighted man, so much the better. In South Africa a very large workshop is not likely to come into existence for some time, a system of depôts for home workers (see app. 25) is more likely to be the general practice, but it will be found that depôts, and small workshops are very expensive to organise—the larger the workshop the easier it is to run it successfully as a business concern, but in a country like South Africa this will mean that there must be hostels attached to the workshop, or that the married workers will have to move to the district in which the workshop is situated; a system on these lines is the one which exists in New Zealand, where there is one large workshop, at Auckland, for the whole country, with hostels and cottages attached. Workers from a distance have a month's leave per annum on full pay, and a second month if they are prepared to forfeit that month's wages.

APPENDIX XXV.

THE HOME WORKERS SYSTEM.

It is often said that the object of all work for the blind is to make the blind man or woman a self-supporting citizen.

Nevertheless it is sometimes found best for the workers to work in workshops, as has already been discussed. But the workshops are only possible in large centres of population, in other places the blind workmen must try to work in their own homes. They will meet with difficulties particularly in obtaining raw material and in the sale of the goods when made. In order to help these blind workmen many societies have what they call a Home Workers Department; the central agency supplies the workers with their material, and helps sell their goods for them.

The system works well in many countries, particularly in Sweden, in which country one day a year is set apart to bring the work of the blind to the notice of the general public.

The weakness of the system is in the fact that it is difficult to supervise the workers in their scattered homes, the result is often that the quality of the work deteriorates, but this can be overcome to some extent by making use of Home Teachers, to whom reference has been made.

A system similar to the above exists in South Africa to-day but there is need for development.

APPENDIX XXVI.

STAND CONCESSIONS.

This is the name given to a form of occupation for the blind which has proved very successful in America and Canada. It means that a blind man or woman has a kind of small shop. The size and shape of the stand will vary, but in general they are like the kiosks we find on railway stations. The goods sold will be of the popular type, such as newspapers, magazines, tobacco, sweets, and sometimes fruit, cakes, minerals, etc.

The requirements are :—

In the blind person: General alertness, neatness and strong physique, for the hours are often long. Ability to think quickly is essential.

A certain business knowledge is required, with accuracy in mental arithmetic.

In the stand. The stand itself must be well constructed, and capable of being securely locked as it is not possible to remove the stock in hand each evening. The making and stocking of the stand is often the greatest difficulty for a blind person without money. The difficulty can be overcome if some society will own the stand and lease it to a blind person.

PLACES WHERE STANDS CAN BE WORKED.

Hospitals.—In large hospitals both staff and patients often want to buy little things. A stand on the premises will be found a great convenience and very popular on visiting days.

Railway Stations.—Kiosks are already a familiar feature on most railway stations and there is no reason why a blind person should not work one.

Factories.—Where there are a large number of workpeople a stand can be of great service, but it will have to include the sale of light refreshments. In this case the blind person will need a sighted assistant.

Street Corners.—If permission can be obtained to set up a stand at some busy corner it will often become very popular.

In conclusion it must be admitted that societies trying to set up a blind person in this work will meet with many objections, and success will largely depend on the right sort of blind person being chosen for the work. A blind man will generally be best for the work, and if he is married his wife will be a great help.

So far as we know the only place in South Africa which has set up a man in this work is Durban.

APPENDIX XXVII.

THE STATE AND THE BLIND.

To some extent most civilised governments assist work on behalf of the blind. The question we have to consider is how far it is fair to expect special state assistance for the blind, and what is the best way that help can be given.

In the course of a very fine address delivered before the world conference of 1931, M. Paul Guinot of France pleaded for such help as will enable the blind to enjoy all the privileges of life which are available to the sighted. He stated that in France, ever since the declaration of the rights of man, there has been a written law which grants permanent aid to the blind, founded on human and natural right.

It is true that he pleads for a fuller understanding of what these rights are in the case of the blind.

At the same conference Capt. Ian Fraser, of England, said that this is a wrong approach, his actual words were :—"Much loose talk abounds as to men's rights The truth is that there is no natural right to live, and that

the statutory rights or traditional rights acquired by those who need other people's help in living their lives are concessions made to them for the sake of or by the goodwill of the community."

Be this as it may, the fact remains that a common sense of justice dictates that those who are handicapped in the way of life should be given assistance, and that it should not be left to the goodwill of a few individuals to organise and finance this assistance. Even in countries which claim to be influenced by Christian teaching there are many people who have little or no sense of responsibility to anything, or anybody, that does not come into their own lives. So the conscience of a nation must be voiced by its laws and justice must be assured for all.

It is very difficult to summarise the various ways in which state assistance is given to the blind in the different countries of the world: there are nearly as many methods as there are nations.

In brief there are four ways in which the state can aid the blind:—

- (1) By the provision of adequate compulsory education.
- (2) By augmentation of the salaries of blind workmen so that every blind person shall be assured of a minimum wage enough to support himself and a family. With this will go such things as relief in taxation, help in supply of raw material and so on.
- (3) Provision for the infirm and unemployable blind.
- (4) Pensions for the blind.

The first and last of these are of such a nature that they must be treated separately, it being remembered that the provision of pensions, or the non-provision, will affect (2) and (3).

We will now try to make a short review of the chief ways in which the nations of the world are trying to aid the blind at their work, and caring for those who are unable to work.

The majority of the American states deal with the matter in a fairly simple way. A state commission for the blind is appointed.

This commission reviews the whole situation in the state as to the numbers and conditions of the blind, and the amount of work that is being done and what needs to be done. A report is presented to the legislature and a block sum is voted to the commission to carry out the work it considered needed. The commission may set up an organisation of its own, or it may divide the block grant amongst existing societies; in the latter case it will naturally require an annual report of how they are using the money thus given to them.

In very few countries do we find that the government tries to control entirely work for the blind, although this would appear to be the method in countries ruled by a dictator. In Italy the welfare of the blind has much improved the last few years if we are to believe all that we are told at the World Conference, not only by the Italian delegates but also by people from other countries who have seen the work in Italy since it has been reorganised by the Minister of Corporations, and those working under him. The representative from Yugo-Slavia told me that great advance has been made in his country, especially during the years that King Alexander ruled as a dictator.

In Russia, where there appears to be government by the dictatorship of a party, the same appears to have happened within recent years.

There was no one at the World Conference from Russia but in the printed report of the proceedings there is a paper by V. A. Viktoroff, All-Russian Society for the Blind, Moscow, which makes it appear that the lot of the blind people in Soviet lands is indeed a happy one.

What does not appear, either from Italy or from Russia, is how much this branch of social service costs the state, and how the money is expended

in the interests of the blind. No doubt any one wishing to investigate this more in detail should obtain this information.

Again there are some governments which try to direct activities for the blind into channels that will reduce the needs for special institutions and absorb the majority of able-bodied blind people into ordinary industry. Germany is the outstanding example of this method, and it is so important that we must devote a special appendix to the subject.

To Great Britain belongs the honour of being the first nation to attempt legislation for the blind of such a comprehensive nature as to include all blind people needing any sort of assistance.

This has been done by an Act known as "Blind Persons Act 10 and 11 cos. 5, 1920." We cannot do better than quote Capt. Fraser's summary of what the Act does—"Mainly, the act falls into two parts: (1) that which the national government undertakes to do entirely from its own financial resources, namely, to pay pensions to practically all blind persons over 50 years of age. (2) That under which the national government required local authorities to make a comprehensive scheme, the expense of which will be shared from state and local funds.

These schemes may include the establishment and maintenance of homes, hostels and workshops, the payment of allowances to the unemployable blind, and the organisation of home teaching and home workers' schemes; they may be undertaken, either directly through machinery owned and operated by the local authority, or, in conjunction with, or through, the agency of voluntary bodies. Generally speaking, the local authorities have operated their scheme in conjunction with voluntary agencies, in their desire to make use of the specialised knowledge and voluntary services which were already available."

This Act has now been operating for twelve years and it is safe to say that all who are responsible are satisfied that the machinery is effective. Naturally there are some who raise questions, the most important being as to whether too much is still left to the local authorities without any guarantee that the work will be done according to a national standard of efficiency. It is certainly true that there is considerable difference in the way in which the different local authorities interpret their responsibility. But speaking in general terms the Act works, and I heard on many sides, during the World Conference, that a number of other countries long for some such comprehensive measure on their statute book.

Those who are familiar with conditions amongst the blind of South Africa will have little doubt that a comprehensive measure somewhat similar to the British Blind Persons Act is vitally needed. It is true that some people will contend that there is an insurmountable difficulty in South Africa in the fact that a relatively small proportion of the population are in such an economical situation that they are taxable to any extent, whereas the greatest number of blind people who will need help will be found amongst the great mass of non-white people. This is not the place to argue that the first answer is that the economical position of all should be raised so that they will all naturally take a share in the responsibilities of citizenship; we must be content to say that a blind person is a blind person whatever his race or colour is, and that in some way or other he will be a burden on the community unless he has learned to be self-supporting. A comprehensive act covering all blind people will really lessen the burden on the country by providing systematic aid out of public funds. Doubtless in South Africa the extent and nature of the assistance given will be regulated by the conditions of the people as normal amongst sighted people.

Before it will be possible to prepare such a measure for the consideration of parliament certain matters must be kept in mind:—

(1) Those who ask for state aid for the blind must have tolerably accurate information as to the number of blind people who will be affected, and their present economic condition. (See app. Registration.)

(2) It must be decided as to who shall be the ultimate local authority to be made responsible for each blind person; or will the government administer the Act through one of its departments?

(3) Will the state aid be in the nature of augmenting other aid, by salary augmentation, or will it be done by the setting up of a state commission to whom a fixed sum will be granted to carry out all that is needed for the blind?

(4) How far will the state aid help philanthropy?

(5) Special provisions such as relief in customs duties, income tax relief (especially by allowing for the salary of a guide), etc.

APPENDIX XXVIII.

PHILANTHROPIC WORK FOR THE BLIND.

Charitable efforts on behalf of the blind have been made in many ways throughout the last 2,000 years. There are records of the efforts made by early Christians to provide homes in which the blind could find some measure of love and care when unable to beg for their own maintenance. In far away Japan we know that in the ninth century a young prince named Nitoyaan lost his sight; in consequence of his son's efforts the Emperor took a personal interest in the blind, compelling the government of that time to pass a law by which the profession of massage was entirely given over into the hands of the blind.

In Europe the oldest effort of any size appears to be the foundation by Louis IX of France of the Hospice des Quinze Vinge at Paris. Curiously this Hospice was founded as a home for blind people who were encouraged to beg—in fact they were the only people allowed to beg in mediæval France. This Hospice still exists as a State Institution for the Blind.

It is within the last two centuries that the idea has developed of helping the blind by education, and other means, to a position of self-respect and independence wherever possible.

The first known school especially for blind children was opened in Paris in 1784 by Valentin Haüy who began with one pupil. In Great Britain the first school was opened in 1791 at Liverpool, whilst in America one or two schools were opened about 1832.

From these beginnings, and other similar pioneer efforts in other lands, has developed all the work that is now being done throughout the world by an army of devoted people, both blind and sighted. So enormous is the present volume of work that at the World Conference, New York City, 1931, no less than 32 countries were officially represented and reports were received from other lands who were unable to send a representative. It is safe to say that no country which claims to be civilized is to-day without examples of philanthropic work on behalf of the blind.

Naturally this has all meant that there are scattered throughout the world many corporations and trusts with large vested interests, which are responsible for one or other branch of work for the blind. Some of these societies are wide in their scope and happily without many limitations laid down by Trust Deeds written many years ago: others are circumscribed in their activities by conditions imposed by well-meaning founders now long since passed away.

This present century is notable for the fact that in all the densely populated countries of the world there are signs of a very strong desire to co-ordinate work for the blind, and co-operate wherever possible. These movements have been stimulated and influenced by three factors:—

(1) The growth of National Organizations which have often started with a programme mainly confined to research, but have developed into an or-

ganization for the co-ordination of existing work and the development of new work where needed. The importance of such National effort has been strengthened by the development of—

(2) the growth of State Aid, and—

(3) the effects produced by the international War, 1914-'18, which gave a new problem to many lands, and has resulted in a great stimulation to all works for the blind.

We will consider the influence of these three factors on philanthropic work a little more closely.

National Organizations.—These have generally come into existence as a result of conferences of peoples already engaged in the work. Naturally vested interests have always been jealous of their Trusts, at the same time the growth of blindness in countries like Germany, France, Great Britain and America, made it imperative that there should be some organization able to cover a field of investigation wider than any single organization could undertake, especially if tied to one branch of work. In a way these National Organizations must themselves be regarded in the light of philanthropic work inasmuch as they have invariably been started by the general public and are still to-day largely financed by the goodwill of people with vision.

Whilst these National Organizations were developing in different countries came the two other influences which will be referred to in a few minutes, namely the growth of State Aid and the effect of the World War. The result is that in most places where there is a National Organization in addition to a number of self-governing, independent organizations, the National Organization assumes the rôle of a semi-official society—a sort of liaison between the various working institutions and the Government. At the same time there are branches of work which can only be undertaken by a National Organization, namely Research, Development, Propaganda on a large scale, and so on.

National Organization is more developed in Great Britain than in America owing very largely to the difference in size of the two countries, and the temperamental attitude of the peoples in those two lands. Throughout the whole of the British Isles there is a good deal of unity of thought in the matter of a public conscience towards the handicapped section of the community. In America the virtual independence of the difference States means that anything in the nature of a completely national organization is very difficult, but the American Foundation for the Blind has done, and is doing, a magnificent work which appears to be very generally acceptable to all parts of the country.

In smaller and younger countries, we often find a reverse process to that mentioned above. National work has begun whilst very little independent philanthropic effort is in existence. In Canada we have the interesting position of a vast country divided into a number of provinces with a considerable measure of self-government, and yet with the exception of one province (Quebec) all the work for the blind is directed by a National Organization, known as the Canadian National Institute for the Blind—schools are, of course, excepted. The Constitution of the C.N.I.B. is worthy of detailed study by those who are interested in this question for it shows how there can be unity of effort and work with a very full measure of local independence. This is really the crux of the matter in the relation between independent philanthropic societies and a National Organization—how to get the maximum of co-ordination and simple, central direction, with the minimum of autocratic action over local branches. Put the other way round: how to secure the minimum of interference from headquarters and the maximum of local effort, and support.

The C.N.I.B. appears to show that this can be done, although in one point it seems to me there is room for improvement on the government of the Institute—it is that the auxiliary branches should have more direct representation on the Governing Council of the Institute. The Council which governs the Institute, it appears, is elected by a meeting of members of the Institute.

It is true that as far as possible the different Provinces of the Dominion should be represented, but it seems to me possible, with the difficulties of travel in Canada, that members of the Institute who live some thousands of miles from the place where the meeting is to be held to elect the Council, will not be able to attend.

A simple alternative would be to allocate the seats of the Council, securing one to each auxiliary branch of the Institute, this person being elected at a special meeting of the local members of the Institute.

This, so far as I can understand it, is the main objection to the C.N.I.B., an objection voiced by an organization known as the Canadian Federation of the Blind, which has made efforts to start branches throughout the Dominion but has not met with any real measure of success except in the Province of Quebec where it is associated with an Institution (small) which was in existence before the C.N.I.B. was founded.

State Aid.—This will be dealt with in Appendix 27, but it must be noted here that an increase in State Aid for the blind means that philanthropic work will be affected. In many ways private effort will be much relieved by the increase of monetary aid from the State, but in return it is only natural that the State will claim some very clear voice in the management of private societies. In England this is secured very largely by a clause in the Blind Persons Act by which there is a registration of societies working amongst the blind, only registered organizations are recognized by the State for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Act. Further control is exercised by State inspection, and the issue of an annual report to the Minister of Health, who is responsible for the working of the Act.

Where willing and generous co-operation between philanthropic societies and Government departments is wanting it is highly probable in these days that the State control will develop, be efficient, set up State institutions and so gradually kill private effort.

It would appear that this is what is happening in Soviet Russia, and Italy (I regret that I could not make personal study of the work in these countries). Whilst there is every reason to believe that in both these countries work for the blind is being done more effectively than was the case a few years ago, still most people will feel that an incalculable good will be lost if philanthropic effort ceases, motivated as it is by Christian love. But these said good people must take care that they are not obstinate in refusing to recognize the rôle of scientific development as exemplified by an increase in State control.

The influence of War Work.—In every country involved in the madness that has been between 1914-'18 there is to be found work for the victims of blindness as a result of their service for their country. It is invidious to select the work done in one country, but if we mention St. Dunstons it is only because of the close link that exists between the Union of South Africa and Great Britain. We recognize the debt which work for the blind throughout the world owes to the struggles of countries like Germany and Italy in their work for the war-blinded.

Not only in Great Britain but throughout the world the name of St. Dunstons is honoured and respected. It is impossible to calculate the influence of this institution for blinded soldiers, sailors and airmen upon the whole work amongst the blind. Money was poured out lavishly for the Institution in Regents Park and its many branches throughout the country with the result that it has been possible to demonstrate how much can be done in the re-education of blinded people, and the settling of blind people in life work. But the influence of the work of St. Dunstons does not lie alone in the concrete proof it has given of what can be achieved by the blind, its influence is far wider and greater by the labours of those who have passed out from St. Dunstons to all corners of the world. In some countries, notably Canada and New Zealand, men of the countries blinded whilst serving in the Imperial forces, and educated at St. Dunstons, have returned to their own homes to take up the work of the civilian blind in their own lands. National Organizations have arisen in these lands very largely as part of the world memorial

fund to Sir Arthur Pearson, Founder of St. Dunstons. In these cases the knowledge and experience gained by these men as a direct result of their personal injuries in the war, have served to the relief and help of numberless blind people, including their own blinded war colleagues whose welfare has been made a responsibility of the organization in their own country.

So philanthropic work for the blind has been influenced in every part of the world by work done at the greatest and wealthiest single organization for the blind that exists in the world, so far as we know.

In this connection it is right that reference should also be made to an organization largely financed by one man, William Nelson Cromwell of America, which is now operating in many places and has had a most beneficial effect on the development of philanthropic work for the blind. I refer to the American Braille Press which has its headquarters in Paris. Its influence is far greater than its name would imply, for whilst helping many countries where work for the blind was broken by the ravages of war, it has also been a great research organization under the able secretaryship of M. G. L. Raverat.

THE POSITION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

The history of philanthropic work for the blind in South Africa is honourable. There are to-day several self-governing organizations owning property and funds that are not inconsiderable. In order of foundation they are :—

The School for the Blind, Worcester.

Our Own Blind Society, Durban.

The Library for the Blind, Grahamstown.

The Athlone School for the Blind, Faure, C.P.

The Institute for Blind Workers, Johannesburg.

In addition there are several societies and committees which are doing magnificent work, but I am not sure how far any of them have at present vested interests. The leading societies are :—

The Civilian Blind Society, Port Elizabeth.

The Civilian Blind Society, Cape Town.

Committee for the Welfare of the Blind, O.F.S., and others.

In addition there exists a National Council for the Blind which is now in the fifth year of its existence. Under its present constitution it exists to investigate, co-ordinate and develop work for the Blind throughout the Union but it does not itself establish buildings or workshops of any kind.

Whilst there is very much for which the public of South Africa may be proud in the work done to care for its blind citizens, which work has been, and is, the outcome of much devoted, voluntary service, still the fact remains that there is a very great deal waiting to be done in this fair land of sunshine.

The organizations and societies which exist cover the following works :— Education ; local workshop accommodation in some places ; a certain measure of Home Teaching work with which goes the work of rehabilitating blinded people ; assistance in placing orders and sale of goods to individual blind people ; and library provision.

Work still untouched includes the adequate provision of relief for the unemployable blind ; residential workshop accommodation for those who cannot work at home ; homes for the infirm and mentally weak blind ; a systematic Home Workers scheme ; adequate work for the prevention of blindness, and sight saving ; comprehensive State Aid which will secure that every blind child and person, of every race, shall be provided for in one way or another.

The question naturally arises as to whether all these activities can be developed by the societies and institutions already in existence. Undoubtedly this is possible, but I am not sure that the growth of a number of private societies is not wasteful, in addition to the fact that some blind people may be missed between them all. I mean wasteful chiefly in administration, energy and finance.

The conditions of South Africa being what they are in respect to the sparse population, and the great mixture of races, it is doubtful if any one particular city could carry an organization for the blind with sufficient funds, and sufficient paid workers to cover all branches of activity, and yet there are several centres in the Union where almost every type of blind person is to be met, and therefore a call for every type of work.

I commend to the consideration of those people in South Africa who are working amongst the blind, and who put the welfare of the blind before every personal consideration, the following suggestion as likely to help work forward in all departments and at the same time provide a simplified scheme through which State Aid can be administered.

Schools will continue as centres of education.

All other branches of work for the blind—i.e., Workshop provision, Homes Services; Care of the infirm and aged; Preventive work and Sight Saving work—should be undertaken on a National Scheme.

That the machinery for such a National Scheme can be evolved by an amalgamation of the Institute for the Blind in Johannesburg and the S.A. National Council for the Blind. The result would be an organization very similar to the Canadian National Institute for the Blind and could be developed on similar lines, taking into consideration the one weakness mentioned above.

I believe that the establishment of such a National Scheme which is also comprehensive would make it possible to appoint an organizing secretary fully qualified in every department of work able to travel about the country and ensure a high standard of efficiency everywhere. As I have written above it is of supreme importance that such a National Organization should ensure a maximum of local autonomy and control of locally collected funds that is consistent with a National Scheme. I believe this can be done.

APPENDIX XXIX.

THE POSITION IN S.A. RE BLIND WORKMEN.

A few years ago, it can safely be said, a blind workman in South Africa was beset by many very great difficulties, some of which still remain, but some have been made easier. The opening of Civilian Blind Societies in our larger cities, the growth of national work, and the developments which have naturally taken place at the schools, have all helped to improve the conditions under which blind workmen can carry out their trade. The chief difficulties which still remain in a number of cases are :—

The initial difficulty of purchasing tools, stock, and equipment with which to set up in work. When blind boys or girls leave school they invariably need a small amount of money with which to set themselves up in the work they have learned at school. The amount is seldom large but, even so, it is difficult to find if parents and relatives are poor, the schools have no funds available for this purpose, and charitable organizations are not always in a position to advance the money.

Market.—The marketing of goods made by a blind person must generally be undertaken by sighted people, not only because it is difficult for a blind person to travel about freely, but also because seldom, if ever, can they spare time from work to go out and try to sell goods. The position in this respect has greatly improved with the opening of societies, workshops, and other organizations functioning on behalf of the blind.

Supervision.—The majority of blind people in South Africa live in country districts widely separated from each other. It is almost impossible for anyone like a foreman, or inspector, to come and see the conditions in which they work, and the type of work turned out. The result is often that as the years go on work is less and less well done, and there is very little development of design from that learned at school. It is hard to see how this can be improved except in tightening up the standard demanded by local societies who help with the marketing of the goods.

"*Jack-of-all.*"—The fact of a blind worker being alone in a village means that he, or she, must be able to do several types of work in order to maintain a living, but the result is not always satisfactory.

Many workers of ability are the type who will do their best work if constantly employed at some particular job in the process of turning out baskets, brooms, etc. This is possible only in workshops.

Coloured and Native.—In addition to the above-mentioned difficulties there must be added a further difficulty in the lives of many South African blind people, those who happen to be born with brown or black skins. For them it is going to be exceedingly difficult to start in work on their own, except in isolated cases in the larger cities.

For the majority there seems to be no alternative to workshop occupation, for which there is at present no provision made whatever, except in Cape Town where there is a small mattress-making shop for coloured blind workers. The majority of coloured and native blind adults are without training, and doomed to lives of idleness or begging.

APPENDIX XXX.

THE GERMAN LAW RE THE BLIND.

In the League of Nations Report this is called the German experiment, but it has really passed that stage. In 1931 I visited Germany in order to see how the law is working, and I was deeply impressed. Ever since the close of war in 1918 Germany has passed through a difficult time, with the result that all social services suffered, but it looks as if some good has come out of evil, for the law relating to handicapped people has changed the whole nature of work for the blind in the country.

February 8th, 1919, an Act was passed in the German Reich to deal with men disabled in the war. In April, 1920, another Act was passed by which employers of labour were compelled to take a certain number of men with a 50 per cent. disability.

On 12th January, 1923, the above Act was extended to civilians. Every employer of labour must take on a certain number of disabled men or women. For the first 20 workmen, one disabled person; for 70, two; for 100, three; and thereafter 2 per cent.

Fifty per cent. disability is clearly defined in the Act. The carrying out of the Act is as follows:—Throughout the country there are branches of the Reichstag committee for social affairs. Attached to these committees there is a special officer whose work it is to visit all the factories in his district, making sure that they have their right number of disabled people, and advising as to what works they could do.

This man is also a placement officer for the disabled people and it is his duty to make sure that the different types of disability receive fair treatment.

In this way a large number of blind people are absorbed into ordinary industry.

Amongst the occupations I saw blind workers employed at a chemical factory—labelling bottles; tobacco factory—sorting leaves, piling up empty cases, rolling cigarettes; sweet works—packing, covering; electrical works—working at different machines, all of which were guarded with wire frames, and so on.

It has been proved that there are many occupations which a blind man or woman can do if the employer of labour will only use a little patience and ingenuity in training them. I was particularly amazed to see the type of machinery which blind men could manipulate.

The placement officer with whom I talked in Berlin admitted that often employers try to get the cripples, deaf-mutes and other types of disabled men, but when they have once tried blind workers they often become enthusiastic to realize how much they are capable of doing, and what good workmen they often prove to be.

The psychological effect on the workers themselves is amazing ; they no longer feel a separated community but part of the general working world. This is of special importance in the case of blinded people.

It must not be imagined that all the blind people of Germany are in this way absorbed into industry, and that the need for special workshops ceases. There still remains a number who are not adaptable, or who are not very quick and intelligent : for these blind people provision is made in Germany in much the same way as in other countries, and there are properly organized methods of relief. But the law has made a great deal of difference in the cases of intelligent, capable blind workers. From the community point of view the German method is much to be commended, for the more workers that can be taken into ordinary work, the better for the community as a whole, because special organizations, and workshops, are always expensive and a tax on the public, either through private philanthropy or state taxation.

APPENDIX XXXI.

[PENSIONS FOR THE BLIND.

There is a great difference of opinion, and a great diversity of practice, in those countries where the state gives pensions to the blind. In Great Britain, and some other countries, the State is content to give to the blind the same pensions as are given to the sighted with the exception that they are granted 20 years earlier.

In Australia and Denmark special pension rights are granted to all disabled people ; in New Zealand very generous pensions are given to the blind, namely 17s. 6d. a week to all blind persons over 20 years of age. Similar provisions apply in regard to property and income as in the case of old age pensions.

An additional pension, equal to 25 per cent. of earnings, is granted where the total income and pension are not more than £3 12s. 6d. per week.

In Australia every blind person of 16 and over is entitled to receive £1 a week provided that their income with the pension is not over £4 12s. 6d. per week.

All these pensions are granted on the principle of compensation.

It is maintained that the handicap of blindness places a man or woman at such a disadvantage in life that they cannot do all that they themselves wish to do. This is to a large extent true. Even when well educated a blind person finds the battle of life very hard, especially in these days when the whole world is industrially unsettled. Some measure of compensation is just, but care must be taken that it does not demoralize. During the world conference in New York Mr. Hedger of Australia stated very gravely that many young blind people became lazy and do not learn their trade well because they are satisfied with £1 a week ; only later in life do they find out that the pension just enables them to live whereas good workmanship means comfort and self-respect.

These matters will doubtless receive attention in South Africa as soon as legislation for the blind is made practical.

APPENDIX XXXII.

BRaille LIBRARIES.

To blind people of educated and cultured tastes it must be a great hardship that Braille books are so expensive, and bulky, that very few can possess an extensive library as sighted people.

And yet reading often means even more to the blind than to the sighted people for they have so much of their spare time unoccupied : this is particularly true of older people, when increasing weakness makes participation

in games less welcome—the evening of life is indeed long to a blind person, books are the greatest comfort.

For this reason Braille libraries are a great need, but most public libraries are not very keen on having a Braille section owing to the space taken up by the books, and the tax on the staff in handling them. So special Braille libraries have been started whenever there are many blind people. In South Africa we are fortunate in possessing such a library at Grahamstown, the need for which was realized years ago by Miss J. Wood, a lady of vision and devotion.

Each of the schools has also a small library, but the main work of book distribution throughout the Union is done of the S.A. National Library for the Blind.

In this connection reference may be made to book copying. It frequently happens that a blind person of particular interest cannot obtain certain books because they are not printed in Braille, and are not likely to be owing to the cost of production and the limited demand. To meet this need ladies and gentlemen of leisure are invited to learn how to write Braille in order to transcribe books, but it is essential that these people should be prepared to learn fully contracted Braille and be ready to pass an examination in accuracy. Work of this kind can be a very pleasant and useful pastime for those who have time to fill, and in South Africa especially there is a real opportunity to serve the blind if bilingual leisured people will learn Afrikaans Braille in order to transcribe Afrikaans books.

APPENDIX XXXIII.

HOMES FOR AGED AND INFIRM BLIND.

The real reason why it is necessary to have special homes for old blind people, and those who are handicapped by additional infirmity is that it is a great burden to ordinary institutions to have blind people in their midst, as well as being far from happy for the blind people concerned.

In most of our South African Institutions for infirm and aged people there are a number of blind people who would be much happier in a special home, under the care of those who understand the ways of the blind. It should not be very difficult to organize such a home provided the various bodies at present financing the blind people will agree to continue that assistance in the form of a subsidy to the home.

This subject is one which emphasizes afresh the need for regulated care of the blind in South Africa, such as will be possible only when proper legislation is on our statute books. When pensions, grants-in-aid subsidies for the unemployable (including the infirm blind) are all regulated then the amount of money needed from the public to finance a home will be comparatively small.

ESSAY III.

THE DOUBLY HANDICAPPED.

The very mention of the term Deaf-Blind, or Blind-Deaf, whichever we may call them, brings to mind many pictures of infinite pathos, but often also of striking courage—living examples of the boundless resources of God's Grace working through men to the breaking down of barriers and the liberation of human spirits, that they may fulfil a purpose in their existence. On the one side an old woman, totally deaf and blind, sitting in a workhouse ward, aimlessly sewing buttons on to a piece of cloth (her only occupation, so poorly done as to be of no value), unable to communicate with anyone by any means—to the outward eye little more than an animal, eating, drinking and sleeping. On the other side Helen Keller,* cultured, wide in interests, beautiful in thought, most happy in self-expression, living in her own dark and silent world and giving out from it power and inspiration to men and women in every corner of the world. Between these two are the thousands of doubly handicapped people, in every stage of physical and mental development, all doubtless serving a purpose in the whole scheme of life, which it is at times difficult for the mind of man to comprehend. They may be divided into three groups:—(1) The deaf-blind, i.e., those who were born deaf, or first became deaf, and later lost their sight: (2) The blind-deaf, i.e., those who were first blind and developed deafness afterwards: (3) The doubly-handicapped from birth, or early infancy.

The last group obviously provide the most serious tax on the resources of their fellows for alleviation, they constitute almost the greatest imaginable challenge to the home circle into which they have been born, and to the educational authorities. Fortunately they are a very small number amongst the children of men: if they could understand the thought, they would endorse the remark of a blind gentleman at the World Conference of the Blind in New York, 1931, when he said, "We are a select company, and we have no desire to add to our number."

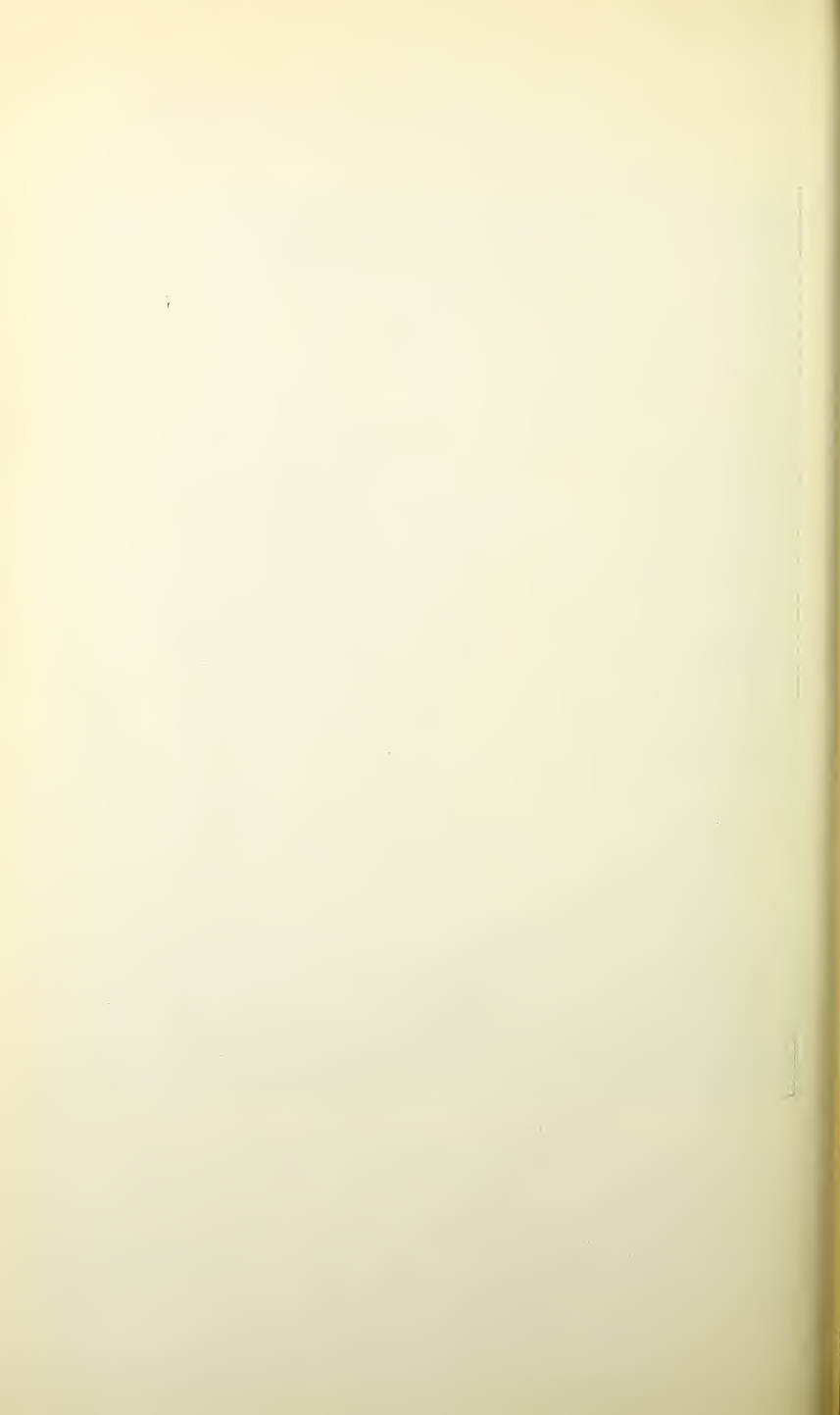
We will first consider the three types of doubly handicapped folk as children, who may also be educated to take a place in life. Then we will try to understand their conditions as adult citizens, and the best way in which the maximum of happiness may be assured them for the most reasonable outlay of public money.

* See frontispiece.



"WINTROP CHAPMAN,"
Deaf and Blind, reading speech by touch.

See page 110.



It may be well to observe first of all that a very small percentage of deaf-blind and blind-deaf children will prove to be also so mentally retarded as to be incapable of benefiting from instruction, especially if their condition is the result of advanced venereal disease which has received inadequate treatment during their early years. It cannot be too strongly stressed that deaf children, and blind children, should be most carefully and thoroughly examined periodically to ensure that there is no change in the condition of their sound faculties.

But as, happily, experience proves that a very large number of terribly handicapped children have a perfectly normal brain capacity, and respond to education in a way which encourages constant research, we must give every child the full benefit of attempted teaching before asserting that they are incapable of learning.

The Deaf-Blind will probably have been some time in a school for the deaf before signs of failing eyesight appear. If the school is a purely Oral one they may have been regarded as slow and unresponsive in the early stages of their inability to see clearly. As soon as it is established that eyesight is defective, and not remediable, it will be realised that a psychological condition is developing which will explain the frequent bursts of temper, and fits of despondency, which so worried the teacher who could not understand why the child was so slow, and reacted so strangely to repeated efforts, often accompanied by a good deal of self-sacrificing individual attention.

Who can fathom the growing resentment in the heart of a deaf child who finds the world around growing dimmer and dimmer, twilight deepening into night?

There is only one thing to be done both to help the child, and to break the power of growing despondency. It is inadvisable to start teaching by Braille methods whilst any sight remains, for two reasons. First, to teach Braille when there is still a temptation to use the eyes will not help touch reading, for which Braille exists. Secondly, to use a method which the child probably knows is used by blind people might precipitate despair at the prospect of becoming totally blind.

The right thing is to abandon purely oral instruction, and introduce finger spelling as more easily visible, quick and accurate. This should be done in the ordinary way of using finger spelling for the deaf right up to the last moment when it is necessary to finger-spell close up against the eyes. When the need for it arises it will be easy to change over to spelling on to the child's hand, because deaf people who use the manual alphabet can generally understand

it when touched out on to their hand—it is their method of communication with each other in the dark.

This does not mean that tactual methods of oral instruction cannot also be tried (a full description will be given later), but the advantage of using the manual means of communication will quickly become evident. The child will learn rapidly, the mind will be more occupied and so have less time to dwell on its own condition, and, most important of all, when darkness finally falls and waves of desolating anguish burst on the little soul, loving, sympathetic devotion on the part of the parents or teachers will have a ready means of expression for the purpose of conversing, and urging that life still holds much in store.

Of course all will be more difficult if blindness has come on whilst the child is quite young, but, as it usually comes gradually, twelve or thirteen years of age will probably have been reached before the teacher in the school for the deaf feels that the child needs also other means by which to be educated. Then will be the time to hand the child over for instruction through the medium of Braille. A means of communication having been established, the necessary explanations will not be difficult, and progress will be possible, although costly, because a special teacher will be necessary, at any rate for a long time.

The Blind-Deaf: The mental condition which arises when a blind child begins to grow deaf is completely different from that described above when a deaf child loses sight. To begin with, incipient deafness is realised by the child affected long before it is obvious to others. Numerous instances are known of teachers deciding that a child is mentally deficient when brain power is in no way impaired, only hearing is growing dull, and the child is too worried, and nervous, to tell the teacher that he, or she, has not caught what was said.

For this reason it is necessary to begin as soon as possible touch methods of education whilst sufficient hearing remains to explain what is being done. Of course expert medical advice will be obtained to make sure that the deafness is not merely the result of some remediable condition, such as adenoids.

If an ear specialist affirms that nothing can be done to improve the hearing, the first thing will be for the teacher in the school for the blind, where the child will be presumably residing, to take extra trouble to speak audibly, questioning to make sure that the instruction has been understood. Hearing tests should be given every six months, and, if it is clear the deafness is progressive, a beginning should be made in teaching the manual alphabet, taking care to do as much as possible by the ear whilst hearing lasts.

To wait for total deafness before beginning to spell on to the child's hand is fatal, for then it will be extremely difficult to explain why certain touches are being made on the hand.

It may be asked if the introduction of a new means of communication will not add to the psychological complications growing in the mind of the child, as it realises it will one day hear nothing. The answer is that there certainly is this possibility, but it is easier for explanations to reach the child whilst there is still power to hear, and despair can be fought by pointing out that even to be deaf as well as blind does not mean the end of all things in life. In the very learning of a new means of communication fresh interests will be aroused, which will act as a stimulus to learn by every available means.

Those born doubly-handicapped, or losing both senses of hearing and sight in infancy.

It is hard to imagine the feelings which must sweep over the souls of a father and mother when they find no channel of intelligible approach in their child. True kissing, touching and other appeals to the senses of touch, taste, and smell will bring smiles of happiness to baby's face, but the prospect—with no response to spoken word or facial expression! Who will blame a parent who cries out in bitterness "Better were it that my darling should be taken from me"?

However, even here better counsels may prevail, and the living example of victory in Helen Keller, and others, may restore the distraught mind, and awaken a determination that everything which GOD makes it possible for man to do shall be done to make steps over the gate to life which has been barred by deafness and blindness.

Of the senses which remain the most valuable is touch, and in its development infinite possibilities reside.

Parents who can afford it will immediately obtain the services of a trained governess, that not a day be lost in the long, difficult journey to emancipation from tragic isolation. Those who cannot afford a private teacher must make the great sacrifice and let their child enter a school which will receive it as soon as possible. There is little the parents can do themselves in the home except to develop the sense of touch by allowing the little one to feel freely, and providing it with playthings, which appeal to the sense of touch.

The question is, to which school should the child be sent, a school for the deaf, or a school for the blind? Unquestionably deafness is the basic handicap from an educational point of view, and it

is therefore a trained teacher of the deaf who should first be entrusted with the difficult task, for they, in the ordinary course of teaching deaf children, are accustomed to make considerable use of the sense of touch.

The usual first approach has been by finding some points of contact between the interests of the child and the world around. It will not be difficult to find a way in which it can pick out its mother from two or three women, and its favourite toys will soon be noticed. If it is decided to start right away with education by spelling on to the hands, certain touches will be made for different articles carefully selected (not more than six to begin with), such as Mother, a ball, a woolly doll, a chair, a table, and baby itself. Making the touch on the hand, the hand will be transferred to the object, then the touch will be made, and the child left to pick out that of which it is the sign. Further developments are too technical to be described here; the difficulties will be realised and therefore the need for expert teaching. But some teachers have abandoned the hand spelling, and prefer to develop recognition of facial movements. This is known as the tactual method.

The start is similar—the names of a few objects are said carefully, the tiny hand being held on cheek, lips or throat of the teacher, and so on until recognition awakens. That this method can be successful has been proved in several cases in America, notably a lad, now 18 years of age, named Winthrop Chapman (Tad), who was taught solely by this method for 10 years before beginning other methods. To-day he can follow most conversation by placing his hand on the speaker's cheek, in such a way that he gets at one time the throat muscles and the lip movements (thumb on throat under the jaw, 3 fingers on the cheek, and a little finger on the end of the lips). He can also recognise a sentence, from a repertoire of about a score of phrases, by placing the hand on the chest, on the top of the head, the back of the neck, or holding the chin with finger and thumb.

Whichever method is followed, the task is of extraordinary difficulty, and demands the whole time attention of a teacher, as well as an intelligence above the ordinary in the child.

As soon as intelligence awakens other methods should also be used, on the ground that the double handicap is so enormous that nothing should be neglected which may help to overcome it.

It must be also borne in mind that through life a rapid, accurate and comfortable means of communication will be needed. Reading speech from facial movements is undoubtedly spectacular, and enables the deaf-blind to read those who cannot finger spell. But

to teach no other method would be to limit the opportunities of wide, ready conversation, for the facial method is decidedly uncomfortable, whereas spelling on to the hand is easy, and can be as rapid as spoken conversation.

When a sound basis of language has been acquired in the school for the deaf, together with speech, then the deaf-blind child should enter a school for the blind, in order that its education may be completed with all the available apparatus used in teaching the blind.

In all cases referred to the education of doubly-handicapped children should include vocational instruction. However well a deaf-blind boy or girl has been educated there will be many hours of loneliness for him or her: in any case life without occupation is incomplete, to say nothing of the fact that the deaf-blind will generally need to support themselves as much as possible. Technical instruction will be best learned in the school for the blind.

Before considering the deaf-blind in adult life there is one question which hardly concerns countries of small population, such as South Africa, but is vitally exercising the minds of people in Europe and America. It is the question whether the education of doubly-handicapped children as isolated cases in various schools is best for them, and practicable from the point of view of expense, or whether a special school for them is not better. In America at present they are educated in the school most convenient for them to attend, but it is becoming increasingly difficult to persuade the schools to take them in for two reasons: the tax on the school staff for the special attention they require, and the prohibitive cost of employing an individual teacher, and also an attendant for out-of-school hours. Dr. Allen, of Perkins Inst., Watertown, Mass. U.S.A. told me the requirements for a deaf-blind child to be educated under ideal conditions are three people—one for domestic attentions, one as a companion (as far as possible the companion should be of similar age), and a teacher or someone to be present as interpreter in the class room. (A special teacher is better but more expensive.)

The alternative is to have a school set apart for these children such as the beautiful Oberlin Haus, just outside Berlin, where all the children are deaf-blind taught purely by manual methods, and with one teacher to four or five children. I had the privilege of visiting this school and was deeply impressed by the magnificent work of the principal and his staff. Considerable time is given to vocational training, and most of the children remain in the Institution after the school days are over. It is their home for life, their place of preparation for the fullness of life hereafter. Whilst there is a very great deal to be said for such an Institution, it has to be

admitted that the exceptional child has no special opportunity. There would be no world-famous Helen Keller, or lads like Tad Chapman, if they had had to go to such a special school in America.

As I have written, this is a matter which does not really affect us in South Africa, where such cases are few, and have to be dealt with individually.

The guiding principle we need always to remember is that with the doubly-handicapped, deafness is the basic handicap from an educational point of view, blindness from an economic standpoint.

With regard to the Deaf-Blind in later life, little needs to be added beyond what has been written in the two essays on the deaf and on the blind.

During the working years of life the doubly-handicapped will be associated with the blind. The trades most suited to them will be those followed by blind people. They are entitled by their blindness to such state assistance as is given to the blind, so they will generally find their way into some workshop for the blind, or residential industrial institution.

When the shadows lengthen and life draws to a close they will be happiest in a Home for the Aged Deaf, because there they will find more people able to converse with them. Moreover, spiritually the deaf-blind share with their deaf friends the need for sympathetic care and attention.

Occasionally cases arise of men or women who have lost their two faculties of sight and hearing late in life. For them various means of rehabilitation have been tried, but it is impossible to say that one way is more successful than another. Everyone will be different. Various means of establishing a new way of conversation have been attempted—writing in ordinary script on to the palm of the hand, using gloves with letters printed on them at the joints, and in rows across the palm so that any sighted person can spell to them—these and other ways have been found useful, but the only satisfactory path to real rehabilitation is for those who work with the deaf, and those in charge of a workshop for the blind, to co-operate in restoring to the man or woman upon whom so heavy a burden has fallen something of the joy of living, and also to reduce as far as possible the burden which rests on the shoulders of those who are caring for them.

In conclusion we may return to a sentence written at the beginning of this essay. Every deaf-blind person presents a picture of infinite pathos but often also of striking courage. Tragic indeed are many of the souls who, in spite of everything that may be done for them, remain largely shut up in a world of their own, too often unwanted by their relatives, and unable to share the deepest joys of life which

come through the channel of a happy, fruitful, married life. It is true that they escape almost all the anxieties of life, which is emphasized by the fact that the faces of the doubly-handicapped are amazingly placid, smooth, without a line or wrinkle ; they look—as they probably are—the faces of innocent children.

The reason is not far to seek ; their life is cared for by others, and must be by the circumstances of their limitations. People who think of the world in terms of eugenics alone sometimes say that the majority of these men and women are so economically unprofitable to the community, and have little of real happiness in themselves, that the wisest and kindest course is that they should be painlessly removed out of life. But what is man to determine ultimate values ? “ Now we see through a glass darkly, then face to face.” Who knows but that in that day of revelations we shall find that these souls have contributed much to counterbalance the strange phenomenon, that there is in the world a great surplus of mother love both in men and women. Rather let us say that they are the supreme challenge to human resourcefulness, based on the boundless power of GOD, and as such let us accept their presence in the human family with deep love and tireless devotion.





